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28 September 1977

TRANSLATIONS ON EASTERN EUROPE
POLITICAL, SOCIOLOGICAL, AND MILITARY AFFAIRS

No. 1452

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INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

BRIEFS

CUBAN STUDENTS IN POLAND--A group of 20 Cuban students, members of the Cuban Communist Youth Union, has departed Poland. The members of the group are pupils of Havana schools bearing the names of the Polish People's Republic and Heroes of Warsaw and a school in Cienfuegos whose patron is a Pole, Karol Roloff-Mialowski, a fighter for Cuba's freedom at the close of the 19th century. During their 2-week stay the Cuban youths, who were guests in Poland at the invitation of the ZHP (Polish Scout Union) Headquarters, visited Bialystok, Lomza, Ostroleka, Olsztyn, and Suwalki voivodships and Warsaw. In addition to visiting the most interesting tourist attractions, the students met with administrative authorities of the voivodships in which they were traveling, toured industrial plants, and visited scout camps. Recently a group of [Polish] scouts and scout instructors from squads bearing the names of Cuban national heroes Jose Marte and Che Guevara departed Cuba. This is the third time such an exchange of student groups has taken place. The main subject of discussion during this year's visit was preparations for the Ninth Festival of Youth and Students to be held in Cuba in 1978. [Text] [Warsaw SZTANDAR MLODYCH in Polish 22 Aug 77 p 2]

CSO: 2600

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

'TVORBA': DIFFERENCE IN SOCIALIST, CAPITALIST CONCEPT OF CIVIL RIGHTS

Prague TVORBA in Czech No 33, 17 Aug 77 p 10

[Article by Josef Blahoz: "Civil Rights in CSSR"]

[Text] Socialist social system regards socialist man as the highest value, as the highest and most noble goal of its efforts. The abstract concept of man isolated from society and from the state, as is typical of capitalism, is alien to socialism. If in capitalism man is regarded as free when he isolates himself to a maximum possible degree from the society, particularly in asserting his egoistic interests--in capitalism this is possible only for the top layer of the ruling class--man in the socialist society is free when he identifies to a maximum possible degree his activity and his interests with the socialist society and with the socialist state power. Freedom under socialism is thus freedom of the citizen of the socialist state who participates through his everyday activity in the building of the socialist society and in the management of the socialist state. Freedom of socialist man and socialist state power are closely interrelated under socialism because their material source--the socialist social production relations on which they are based--is essentially identical. "Socialist democracy," says the resolution of the CPSU Central Committee on the 60th anniversary of the VRSR [Great October Socialist Revolution], "that is the unity of rights and obligations, of real freedom and civil responsibility, that is the harmonious fusion of interests of the society, the collective and the individual." This principle is explicitly incorporated in the draft of the new USSR Constitution. Our socialist constitution also contains similar provisions.

The socialist concept of civil rights and freedoms is fundamentally different from the egoistic and individualistic concept of civil rights in the capitalist states. The CSSR Constitution clearly says so in Article 19: "In the society of the working people, in which the exploitation of man by man has been eliminated, the development and interests of its every member are in harmony with the development and interests of the entire society." Therefore, also, the CSSR Constitution expresses the socialist concept of civil rights by the theme that the individual can achieve full development of his capabilities and justified interests only through his active

participation in the development of the entire society, primarily through appropriate contribution to social labor, and stipulated that work on behalf of the whole is the foremost duty, and the right to work the foremost right of every citizen. The close interlinking of a citizen's rights and duties is a very prominent feature of the socialist concept of civil rights. It reflects the position of the citizen of the socialist state as an active member of the socialist society, not of the isolated individual as is typical of the citizen of the capitalist state.

The CSSR Constitution defines and guarantees a broad scale of political, individual, social, economic and cultural rights which are secured by a system of material, political, ideological, organizational and legal safeguards completely unknown in the bourgeois society.

The civil rights and freedoms stipulated by the CSSR Constitution are secured by such material safeguards as socialist ownership of all means of production which are of decisive importance, and the entire socialist system of the national economy. Socialist ownership and the socialist economic system eliminate exploitation of man by man and are the guarantee against economic crises and unemployment. As the most progressive economic system in the world, the socialist economic system is also the material source of the development of civil rights, particularly social rights, because it insures the continuous growth of productive forces and national income, out of which the increasing needs of citizens are satisfied to a constantly higher degree.

Extraordinarily important are the political guarantees of civil rights in the CSSR which form the entire system of the political organization of the socialist society. The fundamental feature of this system insuring the full and general exercise of civil rights is the fact that the working class led by the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia is the decisive political force in the socialist state.

In connection with the development of socialist education of the working people, the importance of ideological guarantees of civil rights and freedoms usually increases--the penetration of the scientific world view, of Marxism-Leninism, into the consciousness of the broad strata of the working people and in connection with that, the growth of socialist legal consciousness, which forms the profile of the conscious citizen of the socialist society.

Civil rights in the socialist state are not, of course, exercised automatically simply on the basis of material, political and ideological guarantees. The activity of state organs and mass organizations plays an important role in the exercise of civil rights. The activity of organs of the socialist state and of mass organizations aimed at ensuring civil rights, freedoms and civil duties forms in its entirety a system of organizational guarantees absolutely unknown in the capitalist countries. Their purpose is to ensure the fullest possible overall realization of civil rights and freedoms and also the fulfillment of civil duties imposed by the constitution and laws.

Legal guarantees play an unusually important role in ensuring the civil rights and freedoms as well as civil duties in the socialist state. All legal institutions ensure through legal means the exercise of civil rights and the fulfillment of civil duties and protect the civil rights from unauthorized interference by other people and state organs. Civil rights, freedoms and duties proclaimed in the Constitution are legally guaranteed only if it contains the legal order and legal means to ensure their fulfillment and also the legal means to protect them against interference. It is typical of the socialist state that through a consistently well-rounded system of legal guarantees it ensures all rights, freedoms and obligations of citizens which are proclaimed in the Constitution. Among the most important legal guarantees undoubtedly are the judicial safeguards which are very extensive in the Czechoslovak legal system. There are, however, more legal safeguards in the socialist society than in the capitalist society and they are not limited to the judicial safeguards (there are for example organs of people's control, suggestions and complaints of the working people, general supervision by the office of public prosecutor, the monitoring role of the representative bodies over the state of socialist legality). Bourgeois propaganda, which particularly in recent times has used the bourgeois concept of civil rights as an instrument of attack on the socialist countries and particularly on the CSSR, primarily emphasizes the alleged advantages of the legal safeguards of civil rights and freedoms in the capitalist states. Yet, it is enough to look at such areas of civil rights as social, economic and cultural rights in the capitalist states. The Italian Constitution, for example, contains a broad scale of social, economic and cultural rights and quite unequivocally speaks of the right to work. Under the capitalist conditions in contemporary Italy, however, there are no material guarantees of these rights and almost no legal guarantees of these rights that apply particularly to the right to work. A similar situation exists in other capitalist states where the constitutions proclaim certain social, economic and cultural rights. As to the legal guarantees of political and personal rights in the capitalist states, they are largely accessible only to those who have money to pay for them because their costs are unusually high and for an ordinary working man, unbearable. Moreover, these guarantees are applied according to the bourgeois class criteria.

There exists an irreconcilable contradiction between the concept of civil rights in the capitalist and socialist society which ensues from the fundamental and qualitative difference between socialist and capitalist society, and this difference must be realized, particularly at the present time, when the capitalist world is trying by means of the bourgeois, historically already obsolete concept of civil rights to "correct" development in the socialist countries but is, in fact, disrupting it.

EAST GERMANY

PEOPLE'S POLICE VOLUNTARY ASSISTANTS SEEN EFFECTIVE

East Berlin PRESSE-INFORMATIONEN in German No 108, 13 Sep 77 p 3

[Article by Maj Gen Alfred Heydel, Director, Security Police Main Administration in the Ministry of Interior: "German People's Police Voluntary Assistants Are Working Actively for Order and Security"]

[Text] On 25 September 1977, the GDR Council of Ministers decree on admitting voluntary assistants in support of the German People's Police will have been in effect for 25 years. As all social events this year, this anniversary also bears the stamp of the 60th anniversary of the Great Socialist October Revolution.

The People's Police voluntary assistants, working extra in their leisure time, are making an important contribution, with great operational readiness and a great sense of responsibility, to the fulfillment of the class task the workers class has assigned to the German People's Police in insuring and further improving at all times our public order and security for the all round strengthening and the reliable protection of the workers and farmers power.

Alongside the sector agents, the members of the security police, traffic police, transportation police and water security police, they now have for a quarter of a century been fulfilling the tasks assigned to them with great effectiveness -- based on the experiences of the Soviet Union -- for the good of the whole people. Thereby they have gained a position of respect in our socialist society.

The work of the voluntary assistants is a reflection of live socialist democracy and proves the close solidarity between the German People's Police and the population and, with it, that between the population and its socialist state. There are right now more than 100,000 citizens who, alongside the German People's Police, consciously involve themselves and actively participate in protecting the values that society, in the final analysis they themselves, have produced.

Great Influence on the Development of Legal Consciousness

The educational work of the voluntary assistants greatly affects the constant strengthening and development of our citizens' legal consciousness. It increasingly helps uncover in time, and eliminate, causes and favorable conditions for crimes and other law violations. Be it in the various social activists' groups, the housing communities or schools, they are constructively taking part in the consistent implementation of socialist law and are exercising target-directed efforts toward having all citizens observe socialist legal norms voluntarily and consciously.

Their activities are most diversified. They take action, for instance, against security offenses and other law violations and, on their own initiative, take immediate action in accidents and other situations where the life and health of people are threatened.

The tasks and authorizations of the German People's Police voluntary assistants have been expanded and rendered more concrete in the GDR Council of Ministers decree of 16 March 1964. That decree, among other things, grants far-reaching authorizations to particularly capable voluntary assistants. Many experienced voluntary assistants, for example, are entitled to assume various tasks in traffic controls, motor vehicle inspection and house sign-out book controls, and they may even, on their own, take charge of office-hours, substituting for the sector agents themselves. The voluntary assistants engage in their service for insuring public order and security independently under direction by the members of the German People's Police within the framework of the tasks assigned to them or in cooperation with members of the German People's Police. Regardless of what tasks are at hand, wherever there are voluntary assistants, they are distinguishing themselves by great discipline, readiness for action and vigilance.

I am taking the 25th anniversary of voluntary assistant activity as a welcome occasion for expressing thanks and appreciation to the voluntary assistants for the work they have done and for wishing them the very best and much success for their further activities as much as for their own personal lives.

The dedicated and successful activities of the voluntary assistants reflect the great social potentials and the steadily growing social capacity which only the socialist society can produce. To foster further and purposefully use these advantages of our social order is one of the most important prerequisites for fulfilling the growing demands that are being placed on the activities of the German People's Police.

The higher demands placed on the quality and effectiveness in the activity of the voluntary assistants do thus call for special efforts, mainly by those members of the People's Police who are in charge of the assignment, direction and training of the voluntary assistants.

Highly Relevant Use in Crime Prevention

Based on the rich experiences of their successful work throughout 25 years, the voluntary assistants together with the members of the German People's Police are constantly developing new initiatives for making their work still more effective, wholly in the sense of direction as issued by the Ninth SED Congress decisions. Many suggestions and recommendations by the voluntary assistants aim at further developing, and at drawing general rules from, procedures that have proven themselves, as well as at steadily improving their own qualifications for successful solutions of their tasks.

Right now, the People's Police voluntary assistants find their concrete contribution, alongside the People's Police, primarily in aiming more strongly still their readiness for action, vigilance and unrelenting efforts at achieving better results yet in preventing and fighting against crimes, offenses and security violations, and in eliminating their causes and conditions. Serving as examples in enterprises, residential areas and in the leisure time field, and through the target-directed influence they exercise, our voluntary assistants have an ever greater educational influence on the population, through which great discipline, order, cleanliness and security are enforced everywhere and the working people's working and living conditions are further improved.

Numerous examples show that the voluntary assistants of the People's Police have also a significant share in acquiring and defending the title "area of exemplary order, cleanliness, security and discipline" in the towns and communities of our republic. The German People's Police will continue to rely on its voluntary assistants for solving the responsible tasks assigned to it.

5885

CSO: 2300

EAST GERMANY

AIR DEFENSE TROOP TRAINING DESCRIBED

East Berlin MILITAERTECHNIK in German No 8, Aug 77 pp 340-342

[Article by Col Ch. Liebig, military scientist and commander of the Troop Air Defense Section: "The Ernst Thaelmann Ground Forces Higher Officers' School — Troop Air Defense Section"]

[Text] The primary mission of the troop air defense branch is to reliably protect ground forces troops and installations of particular importance to the success of combat against enemy air attack means. This requires a timely reconnaissance on the approach route, selecting the air targets most dangerous to troops and installations and destroying them with a high degree of probability before they can use their weapons.

For this mission troop air defense has modern command, weapon and support systems which reflect scientific and technical progress. These include radars and computers of various types for reconnaissance, command and weapons control, antiaircraft missiles having various ranges, self-propelled anti-aircraft vehicles and antiaircraft guns as well as a significant arsenal of technical and technological means for the preparation and transportation of antiaircraft missiles and maintenance of the systems named.

But the most modern weapons are of value only when they are commanded, serviced and maintained by outstandingly trained and educated socialist military cadres who are capable of using the projected combat and technical capabilities of these systems to achieve victory over the enemy on the battlefield.

Our section is responsible for the training and education of such military cadres and, with the quality of the officers trained, determines to a significant degree the combat effectiveness and readiness of troop air defense units.

Because of the variety of requirements for knowledge and skills, training is given in the training profiles of commanders of antiaircraft missiles units for various missions, commanders of antiaircraft defense units, officers of the antiaircraft missile technical service and officers of the radar technical service.

1. Some Concentration Areas in Training

Officer candidates of all training profiles initially receive social science, military, military technical and mathematical and scientific fundamentals and language training designed to meet the requirements of the training profile, the applicable weapon and support systems and current scientific and technical progress. In particular scientific and technical progress and the modern weapon and support systems resulting from it increasingly place higher demands on the students.

At present all command and teaching personnel of the section are concentrating training on the following areas of concentration:

1.1. Mastery of the most important fundamentals of technical sciences on which weapons and support systems are based. This includes the areas of electrical engineering, electronics, pulse technology, high and maximum frequency technology, control and computer technology, radar, missile technology and others. The goal here is to be able to analyze typical and standardized arrangements and circuits in weapon and support systems in terms of their physical and, in part, mathematical functions so as to establish important profile-related prerequisites for military technical training. This is done primarily in the training subjects of electrical and electronic fundamentals, radar and missile technical fundamentals and radar and missile technical systems.

1.2. Mastery of the design construction of complex weapon and support systems and functional relationships using general view plans and circuit diagrams, the effect of circuit, control and tuning elements and the indications of normal functioning of all systems as the basis for evaluating technical readiness, combat readiness, fault analysis and troubleshooting. Continuation training in accomplishing periodic maintenance with the help of internal and external measuring equipment and in the methodology of fault analysis and troubleshooting. This is done primarily in the training subjects of control stations, fire control radar, launch equipment and antiaircraft missile and technical and technological equipment.

1.3. Qualifying graduates for combat and fire control of units in combat, for rational use of firing rules and for optimum use of all combat and technical capabilities of weapon and support systems, particularly against maneuvering targets and targets under electronic warfare conditions. This is done primarily in the training subjects of tactics, firing and combat service.

1.4. Qualification for the organization and accomplishment of technical servicing, of tuning and periodic maintenance work on complex weapon and support systems and for maintenance on the basis of technologies with the simultaneous use of mobile testing and servicing stations and workshops. This is done primarily in the utilization and maintenance training subject.

1.5. Qualifying officer candidates to conduct combat training of units on the basis of the troop programs.

These main efforts are accomplished in parallel and in coordination. They are mandatory for both commanders and technical officers as experience has shown the necessity of such an approach. The most significant difference in this case is primarily in the breadth of information selected and in the depth of the degree of qualification in different training subjects, these also requiring different amounts of time depending upon the profile.

2. On the Section's Training Base and Certain Training Methods

Three departments or laboratories and the methodology of using them will be discussed below. The departments and laboratories for all comparable training subjects of the section were or are being established according to these principles.

2.1. "Fire Control Radar" Department

The self-propelled antiaircraft vehicle "Fire Control Radar" Department serves primarily to teach the missions, the physical functioning, the design construction of fire control radars, demonstration of normal functioning and the influence of regulating and switching organs of fire control radar systems. To this end the department is equipped with:

- a functional fire control radar which is connected directly with a simulation and training device to simulate targets and jamming of various types and intensities on the scopes;
- a general view plan to explain functioning and for practical measurements on the device (also available to students for independent work are tape recorded detailed descriptions of functions of individual systems and installations);
- a rolled charts cabinet with detailed general view circuit diagrams for each system and selected wiring diagrams which provide a much clearer breakdown and thus provide significantly more information;
- the measuring equipment required for testing and measuring work, this making it possible to demonstrate practically on the fire control radar in a dynamic state the physical functions and the influence of regulating elements in unity with the theoretical explanation;
- originals of certain components and assemblies to increase the visual effect.

In addition the necessary study materials for training in the department have been created. These contain all required general view circuit diagrams with parameters, the corresponding wiring diagrams, pulse-time diagrams and are available to all students.

There are also plastic overlays permitting effective information transfer for all circuit and pulse-time diagrams.

The department also has available all capabilities for conducting, with a large number of officer candidates, such practical questions as monitoring the output position of switches and regulators, switching on the fire control radar, functions monitoring, fault analysis or tuning of individual systems.

2.2. "Fire Control Radar" Laboratory

In the "Fire Control Radar" Laboratory the theoretical knowledge and first practical skills, particularly in fault analysis and troubleshooting, systems tuning, servicing and maintenance, are consolidated within the framework of the utilization and maintenance training subject.

To this end the laboratory is equipped with:

- six laboratory positions, each having a complete fire control radar system and permitting access to all regulating elements and measuring points without changing position;
- a central power supply delivering the required voltage for the functions.

Each of the laboratory positions is given the necessary measuring equipment, the appropriate general view circuit diagram, the measurement circuitry and laboratory instructions.

On the basis of knowledge and skills gained in these and other training subjects, the officer candidates are trained as a team to command the units in combat. Simultaneously with the study of theoretical fundamentals of firing and combat operation, instruction and combat training on weapon and support systems in all functions up to the battery commander level and, to accomplish the goals in tactics, group exercises with and without combat actions in the field and with and without actual target simulation by the air forces are accomplished.

In these group exercises the students are made capable, on the one hand, of making decisions, issuing short and concrete combat orders, organizing combat and rear service support and reconnoitering the elements of battle order. In the group exercises with combat operations, on the other hand, skills in one of the duty positions of the battery (platoon) relative to achieving combat readiness, timely reconnoitering and destruction of targets and the like and preparation of antiaircraft missiles and maintenance under field conditions are further consolidated.

Experience has taught us, however, that these methods are no longer sufficient since the specific of work of commanders has completely changed. In order to command in combat the commander must, together with such qualities as boldness, energy and determination, now have excellent skills in weaponry, decision making with the aid of radar and television devices and expedient application of firing rules without being able to visually observe his unit and the enemy. He must concentrate exclusively on electronic and electrical indications. The primary prerequisite for imparting such skills is the creation of air situations corresponding to actual possible combat operations.

This forced us to travel new paths and create a "command training" department.

2.3. "Command Training" Department

The department consists of the training room and the controller's room which is equipped with:

- a training installation which includes eight autonomous scopes on which, depending on the state of training and the tactical situation, even complicated air situations with jamming of various types and intensities can be simulated;
- eight radio stations which correspond to those on real armament and telephone lines to all scopes;
- working maps, tables, graphs and other aids for decision making;
- a large scale training map and two movie screens.

Three officer candidates, each connected to an intercom, can work on each scope.

The controller's room has the central control panel for the training installation, the monitor scope, a radio station, a switchboard, two tape recorders, a microphone installation and film apparatus.

The principle of training is that the controller mixes tactical situations or problems, time limited by plastic overlays, requiring decisions and orders with explanations over the loudspeaker. Methods of concealed radio orders (information) are also employed. At the demand of the controller, students have to issue combat orders (instructions), which he may record on tape, using available communications means. During decision making and issuing of orders an air situation is already created which forces students to simultaneously accomplish combat and fire control. There is a continuing complication of the situation (by problems) and the air situation and the time for decision making is decreased. The controller can listen to each individual and also correct his work. In addition to creating combat noise, the film apparatus can also be mixed in and used to show strips about air attacks to consolidate skills in aircraft recognition and attack procedures.

Such and similar problems, which have been mentioned here only as being representative of virtually all training subjects, represent for all command and teaching personnel ideological demands which require time limited activities. As the result of an offensive and expedient ideological work, we have succeeded in simultaneously solving, in every case with the most experienced and progressive personnel of individual teaching chairs, various tasks which have subsequently become available in generalized form to all chairs. In thousands of voluntary working hours many collectives have, with the enlistment of all available personnel from soldiers to officer candidates and instructors to the commander, created significant materiel values in which a number of youth projects and innovator procedures have been integrated.

As representative of all comrades who have distinguished themselves by particularly great personal involvement, I wish to name Cols Waldhaus and Schart, Lt Cols Hase, Hrabak, Heerwald and Sylvester, Warrant Officer Kuprat, Sgt 1st Class Goldmann, Staff Sgt Zaenker and Officer Candidates Krippendorf, Cunow and Noske.

3. On Scientific Work

Under the guidance of experienced instructors officer candidates exert a direct influence on the further intensification of training. They are involved on a timely basis in planned solutions of scientific tasks of the teaching chairs or in the investigation of teaching within the framework of the teaching plan.

This is done primarily through voluntary participation by officer candidates in the scientific or scientific and technical circles attached to the teaching chairs and secondly with the verification and home work to be accomplished. As a result of these, for example, many laboratory experiments and instructions, tuning and fault seeking algorithms, servicing technologies, methodically prepared circuit diagrams, study materials, translations and the like have been prepared by officer candidates and incorporated in training. As representatives one may name graduates Lts Kroedel and Traemmler and Officer Candidates Stute, Nitz and Grzegeowski.

In recent years we have also begun rewarding within the framework of socialist competition the three best scientific works by officer candidates. The value of this activity is undeniable for the mastering of scientific and technical progress as well as for strengthening knowledge, skills and behavior patterns.

I have attempted, on the basis of certain problems and examples, to show how the members of our section are realizing in training and education the requirements of the Ninth Delegates' Conference of SED Party Organizations in the NVA [National People's Army] and Border Troops of the GDR.

We were particularly proud when the achievements of members of our section within the framework of socialist competition to honor the Ninth SED Party Congress were rewarded with a certificate of honor of the Minister for National Defense. In addition a number of youth innovators have been awarded MMM [fair of the masters of tomorrow] medals. We will thank the party and military leadership for the materiel and technical opportunities for step-by-step intensification of training with continued good performance in socialist competition toward a still higher effectiveness in training and education.

8373

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POLAND

REVISED MILITARY DISCIPLINE LAW PUBLISHED

Warsaw DZIENNIK USTAW in Polish No 23, 19 Jul 77 pp 207-212

[Proclamation of the Minister of National Defense of 4 July 1977 on the Announcement of a Uniform Text of the Law of 21 May 1963 on Military Discipline and on the Responsibility of Soldiers for Disciplinary Offenses and for Violating Military Honor and Dignity]

[Text] 1. On the basis of article 2 of 30 June 1977, changing the law on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 21, item 90), in connection with the present proclamation, a uniform text of the law of 21 May 1963 on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 22, item 114) is announced, with consideration of changes made by the law of 30 June 1970 changing the law on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 16, item 135), contained in the uniform text published as an appendix to the proclamation of the Minister of National Defense of 1 October 1970 (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 25, item 203), and also changes made by the law of 30 June 1977, changing the law on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 21, item 90), maintaining the uninterrupted enumeration of sections, articles, paragraphs and points.

2. The uniform text added as an appendix to this proclamation does not include the following regulations:

1) Article 58 and 59, article 62, paragraph 1, point 1 and paragraph 2 of the law of 21 May 1963 on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 22, item 114), as being outdated, and article 63 of this law stating:

"Article 63. The law will become effective 3 months after the date of publication;"

2) Article 3 of the law of 30 June 1970 changing the law on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 16, item 135) stating:

"Article 3. The bill will become effective on the day of publication;"

3) Article 3 of the law of 30 June 1977 changing the law on military discipline and on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity (DZIENNIK USTAW, No 21, item 90) stating:

"Article 3. The law will become effective on the day of publication."

J. Urbanowicz for the Minister of
National Defense
Appendix to the proclamation of the
Minister of National Defense of
4 July 1977 (item 101).

Law of 21 May 1963 on Military Discipline and on the Responsibility of
Soldiers for Disciplinary Offenses and for Violating Military Honor and
Dignity

Section 1

General Regulations

Article 1. 1. Military discipline is the strict subordination of every soldier to principles defined in rules and other military regulations and orders of superiors.

2. The basis for military discipline is love of the Fatherland, fidelity to the Nation, firmness in maintaining the military oath, awareness of the need for service as great as possible to Poland, a feeling of personal responsibility for the entrusted obligation of defense of the country, special affection and attachment to the symbol of Poland and its Armed Forces, and respect for and full confidence in superiors.

Article 2. As a citizen of Poland, a soldier should be a model in observing the regulations of the law and socialist norms of social coexistence, watch over the interests of the State and adapt himself thoroughly to the requirements of military discipline.

Article 3. 1. Superiors have the obligation of maintaining military discipline in the soldiers subject to them.

2. Superiors are obligated to inculcate in their soldiers the values of socialist ideology and **ethics**, patriotism and internationalism, the socialist attitude toward service and work, and a feeling of social responsibility, to develop courage and fortitude, and to teach organized model behavior.

3. Superiors are aided by the right to use necessary instructional methods for maintaining military discipline.

4. Instructional methods in particular are partiality and disciplinary punishment.

Article 4. 1. Soldier collectives cooperate with superiors in strengthening military discipline and the socialist principles of social coexistence, as well as in the formation of a proper ideological and moral attitude in soldiers.

2. Soldier collectives particularly aim, through suitable educational activity, at a guarantee that soldiers will observe military order and avoid violations of military discipline.

3. The Minister of National Defense defines the particular tasks and the principles and forms of soldier collective activity.

Article 5. A superior is authorized to suspend a soldier from service activities if the good of the service requires this.

Article 6. 1. In case of subordination or resistance on the part of a soldier, a superior or an equal with more seniority is obliged to use necessary measures to force obedience to the order which was justifiably issued.

2. In a fighting situation a superior or an equal with more seniority has the right to defend himself against the soldier who refuses to obey, abandons his weapon or arbitrarily deserts his post, if the circumstances require immediate remedy and other means are not satisfactory.

Section 2

Granting Partiality

Article 7. 1. Partiality is granted to soldiers for performing actions illustrating fortitude or courage, for remarkable achievements in performing service tasks or social work, and to soldiers who are leaders in service, in military and political training, who distinguish themselves by regard for social property, or who possess other traits of service or achievements.

2. Partiality is also granted to military units and sub-units for military achievements or for a high degree of military preparedness and for very good training and instructional results, and also for achieving outstanding results in the performance of other service or social tasks.

Article 8. 1. Soldiers may be granted the following types of partiality:

- 1) Citation,
- 2) Citation in orders,
- 3) Short period of leave,
- 4) Material or financial award,
- 5) Commendatory letter with a photograph of the soldier against the background of the outspread standard of the unit or the military colors,
- 6) Congratulatory letter,
- 7) Certificate of recognition,
- 8) Award of a firearm or sidearm with a dedication,
- 9) Award of a distinguishing title and model soldier decoration,
- 10) Registration of name and services in the chronicles of the unit or service book,
- 11) Promotion to a higher service post,
- 12) Promotion to a higher military rank,
- 13) Award of a medal,
- 14) Registration of name and services in the "Honor Book of Soldier's Deeds."

2. Partiality can be earlier release from disciplinary punishment meted out earlier.

3. Military units and sub-units can be granted the following types of partiality:

- 1) Citation in orders,
- 2) Material or financial award,
- 3) Certificate of recognition,

- 4) Award of the title of leading squad or other honorable designation,
- 5) Award of a souvenir medal.

4. The Minister of National Defense can also introduce other kinds of partiality granted to soldiers and to military units and sub-units.

Article 9. 1. Independently of any partiality granted by superiors, proposals may be presented for granting soldiers or military units orders or decorations in cases and according to principles defined in separate regulations.

2. The award of an order or decoration is a special type of partiality for a soldier or military unit.

Article 10. The regulations of articles 7-9 are properly applied to students in higher schools acquiring military training within the framework of military study in the higher school.

Article 11. The authority of individual superiors in the area of granting partiality and the principles and method of granting them are regulated by the disciplinary rule of the Armed Forces of Poland.

Section 3.

Disciplinary Punishment

Article 12. 1. Every violation of military discipline is a disciplinary offense.

2. Superiors mete disciplinary punishment out to soldiers for disciplinary offenses, if other instructional methods are not satisfactory.

3. In special cases defined in the disciplinary rules of the Armed Forces of Poland, the right of disciplinary punishment is also bestowed on commanders who are not the superiors of a soldier.

Article 13. The following are subject to disciplinary responsibility:

- 1) Soldiers in active military service,
- 2) Soldiers who do not fulfill their active military service because of disciplinary offenses committed while they were wearing the military uniform and insignia,
- 3) Students in higher schools acquiring military training within the framework of military study in the higher school, for disciplinary offenses committed during their training or in connection with it,

4) Prisoners of war and other persons in cases and according to principles anticipated in special regulations or in international agreements.

Article 14. 1. The following types of disciplinary punishment can be meted to soldiers:

- 1) Reprimand,
- 2) Rebuke,
- 3) Rebuke in orders,
- 4) Rebuke with a warning,
- 5) Performance of routine activities out of order,
- 6) Prohibition against leaving quarters for a definite time,
- 7) Deprivation of the distinctive title and decoration of a model soldier,
- 8) Arrest for up to 14 days,
- 9) Reduction or deprivation of periodic leave granted to soldiers during basic military service,
- 10) Service in a disciplinary squad for a period from 1 to 3 months,
- 11) Warning of incomplete suitability for a service post occupied,
- 12) Demotion to a lower service post,
- 13) Warning about incomplete suitability for professional military service,
- 14) Reduction in military grade,
- 15) Discharge from military service performed as a candidate for professional soldier,
- 16) Removal from professional military service,
- 17) Demotion from military rank held.

2. Performance of the penalty of arrest or of service in a disciplinary squad can last for a period of 2 to 6 months.

3. If a soldier sentenced to reduction or deprivation of a periodic leave distinguishes himself for at least 3 months by perfect service and behavior, and if the penalty was cancelled, the commander of the unit can grant him leave to which he is entitled in a given year of service.

4. With respect to officers and warrant officers in active military service, and to professional noncommissioned officers, the penalty of reduction or loss of military rank held can be inflicted only as a result of a court of honor.

Article 15. 1. A judgment can be made only once and disciplinary punishment meted out only once for a disciplinary offense.

2. In the case of a single punishment for several offenses, one punishment, proportionately more severe, is meted out for the offenses.

3. In meting out disciplinary punishment, special consideration is given to the motive for the deed, the degree of blame and importance of the offense committed, previous behavior of the guilty party and the period for which military service has been fulfilled.

Article 16. 1. There can be no disciplinary punishment after the lapse of 6 months from the date the disciplinary offense was committed.

2. The time limit defined in paragraph 1 does not apply if:

1) The handing down of the disciplinary punishment is to take place in connection with a refusal to begin penal proceedings, discontinuance or conditional discontinuance of these proceedings, or renunciation by the court of the use of educational or corrective measures,

2) The disciplinary offense was discovered as a result of the activity of control organs or as a result of the procurator's check on the observation of the law,

3) The proposal of a court of honor or a collegiate court had an effect on the sentence of disciplinary punishment.

3. In the cases defined in clause 2, disciplinary punishment cannot be meted out after a lapse of 3 months from the day of implementation of the sentence of the court or the decision of the military procurator, or from the day the results of the check carried out are transmitted to the commander of the military unit. However, disciplinary punishments cannot be meted out after 3 years have elapsed from the commission of the offense.

Article 17. Soldiers performing penal service in a disciplinary unit and particularly distinguish themselves in this service can be exempted from performing part of the punishment.

Article 18. 1. The period of disciplinary punishment under arrest is not counted toward the duration of active military service, unless this punishment has been eliminated from the records.

2. The time of active military service does not include a period in which a soldier arbitrarily abandoned his unit or assigned quarters or during which he was arbitrarily away from them. However, this period can count in the time of active military service if at a later period the soldier distinguished himself by model service, and if the disciplinary punishment meted out for this offense was removed by way of partiality.

Article 19. Soldiers subject to discharge from active military service who are under the disciplinary punishment of arrest or service in a disciplinary unit cannot be discharged from active military service during the term of their punishment.

Article 20. If considerations of military discipline so require, a soldier violating military discipline can be detained before disciplinary punishment is meted out, and he can be sentenced to a detention room for a time not to exceed 48 hours.

Article 21. The disciplinary rules of the Armed Forces of Poland, and other military rules, define the period of application of disciplinary punishment as a function of the nature of the service and the military rank held by the soldier, the method of clarifying circumstances and results of the offense committed, the method of meting out punishment and the authority of superiors, and the principles of applying and cancelling punishments.

Section 4

Responsibility for Violating Military Honor and Dignity

Article 22. 1. Soldiers fulfilling professional or temporary military service, and officers and warrant officers exercising military duties bear responsibility before courts of honor for actions which violate military honor and dignity.

2. Courts of honor are selected.

Article 23. 1. Courts of honor judge according to the strength of conviction based on the free evaluation of commanders guided by principles of military honor and dignity and by the regulations of the law and regulations issued on the basis of the law.

2. Members of courts of honor are independent in making judgments.

Article 24. 1. Courts of honor begin proceedings:

- 1) on the motion of a proper superior,
- 2) On private initiative or on the motion of a soldier collective,
- 3) On the motion of a military procurator or court,

4) On the written motion of an officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer or on a grievance by a civilian wronged by a deed constituting a violation of military honor and dignity.

2. Proceedings cannot be begun before a court of honor if a period of 1 year has passed since the day of commission of the act violating military honor and dignity.

3. If the matter were the subject of penal proceedings, the proceedings before a court of honor could not be begun after 6 months had passed from the day of implementation of the sentence of the court or a decision of a military procurator concluding the penal proceedings. In this case the time limit defined in paragraph 2 is not applied.

Article 25. 1. If a court of honor does not perceive any blame in an officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer in regard to the deeds attributed to him, it calls for an acquittal.

2. When it is found that an officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer is guilty of the deeds attributed to him, the court of honor finds him guilty and applies instructional methods in the form of:

- 1) Reprimand,
- 2) Rebuke,
- 3) Stern rebuke.

3. If in the opinion of the court of honor the instructional methods mentioned in paragraph 2 are incommensurate with the importance of the deed committed, the court finds the officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer guilty and informs the proper organ with a proposal of:

- 1) Meting out the disciplinary punishment of prohibition against leaving quarters for a definite period of time,
- 2) Deprivation of the right to perform functions in social organizations active in the army for a period of up to 2 years,
- 3) Meting out a disciplinary punishment of warning of incomplete suitability for professional military service, reduction in military rank, removal from professional military service or deprivation of the military rank held from soldier up to the rank of colonel (commodore) inclusive,
- 4) Deprivation of officer rank higher than the rank of colonel (commodore).

4. The court of honor does not render a judgment, but directs the case to the proper military procurator for the purpose of beginning penal proceedings, if in the opinion of the court the deed perpetrated by an officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer includes typical crimes.

5. In applying instructional methods or in making proposals mentioned in paragraph 3, a court of honor may also oblige an officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer to apologize to the wronged person and also to repair any damage caused.

Article 26. 1. Supervision over courts of honor is exercised by the Minister of National Defense and military organs authorized by him.

2. The supervision mentioned in paragraph 1 does not extend into the field where members of the court are independent.

Article 27. The Minister of National Defense determines the special organization of courts of honor, the properties, composition and method of choosing these courts, the principles and procedures in examining cases and making judgments, the principles and course of introducing and examining appeals and of implementing decisions of courts of honor, the range and method of exercising supervision over courts of honor, and the attributes of military organs in these cases.

Article 28. 1. Privates and noncommissioned officers in active military service not subject to the authority of courts of honor bear responsibility before collegiate courts for deeds which violate military honor and dignity.

2. Collegiate courts also inspect cases of behavior of soldiers incompatible with socialist principles of social coexistence.

3. Collegiate courts can conduct instructional talks and, on the recommendation of a superior, examine cases of soldiers violating discipline and military order.

Article 29. 1. Collegiate courts begin proceedings:

- 1) On the recommendation of a superior,
- 2) On the initiative of the chairman of a collegiate court,
- 3) On the motion of a military procurator or court,
- 4) On the motion of a soldier or on the charge of a civilian who has been wronged.

2. The regulations of article 22, paragraph 2, article 23 and article 25, paragraph 1, are properly applied to collegiate courts.

Article 30. 1. In case it is found that a soldier is guilty of the deed attributed to him, the collegiate court finds him guilty and applies instructional methods in the form of:

- 1) Reprimand,
- 2) Rebuke,
- 3) Severe rebuke.

2. If in the opinion of the collegiate court the instructional methods mentioned in paragraph 1 are incommensurate with the importance of the deed perpetrated, the court finds the soldier guilty and informs the superior with a recommendation for meting out suitable disciplinary punishment.

3. In applying instructional methods or making a recommendation about meting out disciplinary punishment, a collegiate court may also:

- 1) Oblige a soldier to apologize to the wronged party and also to repair any damage caused,
- 2) Make a suggestion to a superior about lodging a letter with the factory, political or social organization, or family in the case of improper behavior of a soldier.

Article 31. The Minister of National Defense determines the organization of collegiate courts, the composition and method of choosing them, and the principles and procedures for these courts.

Article 32. In case there is a need to examine civilians as witnesses, courts of honor and collegiate courts have the right to summon and examine such persons according to the principles and in the way defined in the Code of Administrative Procedure.

Section 5

Repeal of Disciplinary Punishment and Sentences of Courts of Honor

Article 33. 1. Disciplinary punishment meted out is repealed when:

- 1) New circumstances are revealed which show that there was a lack of cause for punishment,
- 2) Punishment opposed to the regulations of the law or regulations issued on the basis of the law.

2. A commander who has meted out punishment, and his superiors are authorized to repeal disciplinary punishment.

3. The Minister of National Defense can repeal any disciplinary punishment meted out to a soldier.

Article 34. 1. The Minister of National Defense or military organs empowered by him can repeal any sentence of a court of honor in the course of supervision. This does not refer to sentences on the basis of which there was a withdrawal of officer rank higher than the degree of colonel (commodore). Such sentences can be repealed by a People's Council.

2. Repeal of the decision of a court of honor against an officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer can take place only if new and essential circumstances have been revealed, not known to the court of honor at the time the case was tried, and not later than 6 months after the day the sentence was delivered.

3. Repeal from the sentence of a court of honor, on the basis of which disciplinary punishment was meted out, causes this punishment to be repealed.

4. In case of repeal of the sentence of a court of honor, on the basis of which a soldier was deprived of a military rank held, the soldier regains the lost rank through the force of law from the day the sentence is repealed.

Article 35. 1. In the case of repeal of disciplinary punishment including demotion to a lower service post, reduction in military rank or removal from professional military service, and in the case of repeal of the sentence of a court of honor as a result of which a soldier was deprived of the rank of officer, warrant officer or noncommissioned officer, the results caused by meting out disciplinary punishment or deprivation of rank are subject to repeal, in a period of time determined in the decision on the repeal of disciplinary punishment or of the sentence of the court of honor.

2. The disciplinary regulations of the Armed Forces of Poland define the principles and method of removing the results through the repeal of other disciplinary punishments than those mentioned in paragraph 1.

Section 6

Control of Observation of Order and Discipline Away From Quarters

Article 36. 1. The organs authorized to plead for soldiers violating discipline or military or public order away from quarters are the regulatory organs of the Military Police and garrison headquarters, designated below as "military regulatory organs."

2. The Minister of National Defense can also authorize other military organs to plead for soldiers in cases spoken of in paragraph 1.

3. Organs of the Citizens' Militia, the Voluntary Reserve of the Citizens' Militia and the Railroad Guards are also organs empowered to plead in cases mentioned in paragraph 1.

Article 37. 1. In carrying out their tasks the military regulatory organs have the right to:

- 1) Verify identification papers, detain and transport to the proper military organs soldiers found away from quarters in cases where they violate discipline or military or public order, and to call the attention of soldiers to behavior which does not agree with regulations,
- 2) Use physical force in the case of resistance of soldiers being retained or conveyed, and in cases in which the military regulatory organs are authorized to use weapons,
- 3) Use weapons as a final resort, permitted only when other means of force are unsatisfactory, and only in prescribed cases, for the purpose of preventing the commission of a serious crime or for the purpose of subduing a dangerous criminal or preventing his escape.

2. Weapons cannot be used for the purpose of taking a life and must be used in a way causing the least possible damage to the person against whom the weapons are used, and at the same time without exposing the life or health of other persons.

Article 38. The Minister of National Defense determines the principles and methods to be followed by military regulatory organs using the authority mentioned in article 37, paragraph 1, and cases in which the use of arms by these organs is justified and the procedures followed in using arms.

Article 39. The term "soldier," used in articles 36 and 37, means soldiers in active military service and also soldiers who are not fulfilling active military service, and students acquiring military training within the framework of higher studies while they are wearing military uniforms and insignia.

Section 7

Responsibility of Soldiers for Crimes

Article 40. Soldiers in active military service bear disciplinary responsibility or responsibility before courts of honor for crimes, if the regulations of the present section do not state otherwise.

Article 41. 1. Organs formed to judge cases of crimes send the results obtained about punishment in connection with soldiers in active military service to the commanders of the military units in which the soldiers are performing service or to other military organs.

2. Conclusions on punishment can also be sent directly to military organs through interested organs, institutions or persons.

Article 42. 1. For crimes for which, in accord with the regulations of the Code of Proceedings in cases of crime or other particular regulations, the proper organs defined in these regulations can levy fines as a penal forfeit, and soldiers in active military duty bear the responsibility for carrying out the mandate. These organs set the fines for soldiers as a penal forfeit.

2. In case of refusal to accept the penal forfeit or of nonpayment of the fine on time, the organ authorized to levy taxes as a penal forfeit sends a suggestion for punishment of the soldier to the military organ defined in article 41, paragraph 1.

Article 43. In cases defined in articles 41 and 42, paragraph 2, disciplinary punishment or the beginning of proceedings before a court of honor cannot take place after the expiration of the limitations established for a given crime in the crime law.

Article 44. 1. Soldiers bear responsibility on general principles for crimes committed before entering active military service.

2. Through administration the Council of Ministers determines the principles and execution of penalties levied for crimes spoken of in paragraph 1, as well as principles and procedures for using postponements, interruptions, and relief in carrying out these penalties, and suspension of their performance.

Article 45. For financial crimes soldiers in active military service bear responsibility on the principles and before the organs defined in the penal financial regulations.

Article 46. 1. For deeds for which particular civil organs are authorized to levy regulatory penalties, in the sense of the compulsory regulations, soldiers in active military service bear complete disciplinary responsibility or appear before courts of honor.

2. The disciplinary measures anticipated in the law are applied to soldiers in active military duty and also in cases where pertinent civil organs are justified, in the sense of the compulsory regulations, to use fines as a means of coercion.

3. A pertinent organ contacts the commander of the military unit in which the soldier is performing his service, or another military organ, about summoning a soldier for disciplinary responsibility or to appear before a court of honor.

4. The regulations of paragraphs 1-3 are also used in cases where the regulatory penalty or fine for the purpose of coercion was used before the entry of the soldier into a military unit, and had not been carried out before this time.

5. Proper military organs, upon the suggestion of organs managing transportation, carry out the forced transportation of a soldier in active military service in cases defined in the compulsory regulations.

Section 8

Responsibility of Judges and Military Procurators and of Officers, Warrant Officers and Noncommissioned Officers of the Personnel Corps of the Health Service

Article 47. Judges of military courts bear disciplinary responsibility for crimes and disciplinary violations, and for deeds violating military honor and dignity according to principles defined in the law on the structure of military courts, and the judges of the Supreme Court, being professional officers, are responsible for the principles defined in the law on the Supreme Court.

Article 48. Military procurators and investigating officers in military organizational units of the Public Prosecutor's Office bear disciplinary responsibility for disciplinary offenses and for deeds violating military honor and dignity perpetrated during or in connection with the performance of procurator (investigating office) functions, on the principles defined in the law on the Public Procurator's Office of Poland.

Article 49. Officers, warrant officers and noncommissioned officers of the Personnel Corps of the Health Service (physicians, dental doctors, pharmacists, hospital attendants, nurses and so on) in active military service bear responsibility for professional offenses on principles defined in regulations on the professional responsibility of skilled workers in the Health Service.

Article 50. For other crimes and disciplinary offenses, and for other deeds violating military honor and dignity, soldiers mentioned in articles 48 and 49 bear responsibility according to the principles defined in the law.

Section 9

Suspension From Service Activities

Article 51. A soldier can be suspended from service activities in connection with an accusation of a serious violation of military discipline, particularly abuse of service authorization, if there is a justified and immediate need to remove him from fulfilling his obligations at the service post he occupies.

Article 52. 1. The period of suspension of a soldier from service activities cannot exceed 1 month.

2. The Minister of National Defense or military organs authorized by him can extend the period of suspension of a soldier from service activities up to 3 months.

Article 53. The proper superior is obliged to immediately appeal suspension from service activities if reasons arise to justify the use of suspension, and in case the period defined in article 52 has passed.

Article 54. The regulations of articles 51-53 do not infringe upon the authority of a court or a military procurator to suspend a soldier from service activities in connection with penal proceedings.

Article 55. The disciplinary rules of the Armed Forces of Poland regulate the principles and method of suspension of soldiers from service activities and the authority of superiors in this area.

Article 56. The regulations of the law on the structure of military courts and law on the Public Procurator's Office of Poland regulate the suspension of judges and military procurators from service activity.

Section 10

Complaints and Reports

Article 57. 1. A soldier has the right to enter a complaint to the proper superior in case he is given a penalty not anticipated in article 14 or a penalty for an offense which he did not commit, or for a violation of disciplinary authority by a superior.

2. A soldier can also enter a complaint with the proper superior in other cases on the grounds of the behavior of superiors or other military organs violating the rights which soldiers have in connection with military service, or on the grounds of negligent, improper or prolonged disposition of a case by military organs.

Article 58. A soldier can enter a complaint only in his own case.

Article 59. 1. A complaint lodged by a soldier should be examined by his own superior or by a pertinent military organ within 2 months at the latest.

2. The soldier entering a complaint is informed about the method of disposing of the complaint.

Article 60. 1. A soldier can make reports to superiors or other military organs.

2. The subject of reports can particularly be matters of deficiency in the activity of military organs, violation of law and order, abuse, protection of military property and satisfaction of the needs of soldiers.

3. A report may contain proposals and suggestions of a soldier in regard to the elimination of the deficiencies, abuses or violations observed.

4. The regulation of article 59 is properly used in cases of examination of reports.

Article 61. Rules and other military regulations determine the principles and procedures for lodging complaints and reports, the authority of the military organs in these cases and the principles and procedures for examining complaints and reports.

Article 62. In cases other than those defined in articles 57-60, a soldier has the right to lodge grievances, suggestions, revocatory methods and requests anticipated in the Code of Administrative Procedures and in special regulations on procedures before military organs.

Section 11

Final Regulations

Article 63. As long as officers, warrant officers and noncommissioned officers of the Personnel Corps of the Health Service are included in the regulations on professional responsibility of skilled workers in the Health Service, they bear disciplinary responsibility or may appear before courts of honor for professional offenses.

Article 64. In cooperation with the Minister of Internal Affairs, the Minister of National Defense will publish the disciplinary regulations of the Armed Forces of Poland in fulfillment of the law.

Article 65. 1. The authority of the Minister of National Defense and of the military organs subject to him, anticipated in the law, properly belongs to the Minister of Internal Affairs and to the organs subject to him with respect to soldiers fulfilling their service in units subject to him.

2. In cases defined in article 8, paragraph 4, article 27, article 31, article 36, paragraph 2 and article 38, the Minister of Internal Affairs works in concert with the Minister of National Defense.

Article 66. The law of 18 January 1951 on the responsibility of soldiers for disciplinary offenses and for violating military honor and dignity is no longer in force (DZIENNIK USTAW, 1951, No 6, item 55, 1954, No 34, item 142 and 1958, No 2, item 5 and No 36, item 164).

NEW COUNCIL, BUREAU, AUDITING COMMISSION OF WRITERS UNION

Bucharest LUCEAFARUL in Romanian 29 May 77 p 6

[Results of elections held during the National Writers Conference on 26 and 27 May 1977]

[Text] Writers Union Council

- | | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Alexandru Ioan | 32. Fulga Laurențiu | 62. Philippide Alexandru |
| 2. Anghel Paul | 33. Gálfalvi Zsolt | 63. Pituț Gheorghe |
| 3. Andrițoiu Alexandru | 34. Gheorghiu Tașcu | 64. Pop Sânziana |
| 4. Balaci Alexandru | 35. Guga Romulus | 65. Popescu Dumitru Radu |
| 5. Bălăiță George | 36. Gurghianu Aurel | 66. Popovici Titus |
| 6. Bănulescu Ștefan | 37. Hajdu Győző | 67. Preda Marin |
| 7. Bergwanger Nicolaus | 38. Hauser Arnold | 68. Prelipceanu Nicolae |
| 8. Blandiana Ana | 39. Hăulică Dan | 69. Raicov Svetomir |
| 9. Boeriu Eta | 40. Hobana Ion | 70. Ralea Catinca |
| 10. Bogza Geo | 41. Horea Ion | 71. Rău Aurel |
| 11. Boureanu Radu | 42. Huszár Sándor | 72. Rebreanu Vasile |
| 12. Buzea Constanța | 43. Iancu Traian | 73. Scherg Georg |
| 13. Buzura Augustin | 44. Ianoși Ion | 74. Simion Eugen |
| 14. Caraion Ion | 45. Izbășescu Mihai | 75. Sintimbreanu Mircea |
| 15. Cassian Nina | 46. Jebeleanu Eugen | 76. Simionescu Mircea Horia |
| 16. Chiriță Constantin | 47. Lászlóffy Aladár | 77. Sorescu Marin |
| 17. Ciobanu Mircea | 48. Léty Lajos | 78. Stănescu Nichita |
| 18. Cioculescu Șerban | 49. Lovinescu Horia | 79. Storch Franz |
| 19. Covaci Aurel | 50. Macovescu George | 80. Sütő András |
| 20. Crohmălniceanu Ov. S. | 51. Malița Mircea | 81. Szász János |
| 21. Deșliu Dan | 52. Manolescu Nicolae | 82. Szilágyi István |
| 22. Dimisionu Gabriel | 53. Mălăncioiu Ileana | 83. Tărchilă Dan |
| 23. Dinescu Mircea | 54. Méliusz József | 84. Tomuș Mircea |
| 24. Doinaș Ștefan Augustin | 55. Naghiu Iosif | 85. Tudoran Dorin |
| 25. Domokos Géza | 56. Neagu Fănuș | 86. Tudoran Radu |
| 26. Dumbrăveanu Anghel | 57. Olteanu Ioanichie | 87. Țoiu Constantin |
| 27. Dumitrescu Geo | 58. Paler Octavian | 88. Ulici Laurențiu |
| 28. Dumitrescu Zoe-Bușulenga | 59. Papu Edgar | 89. Ursachi Mihai |
| 29. Duțescu Dan | 60. Păcurariu Francisc | 90. Vlad Ion |
| 30. Felea Victor | 61. Petrescu Radu | 91. Zăciu Mircea |
| 31. Fodor Șandor | | |

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CSO: 2700

1976 POPULATION DATA FOR REPUBLICS, PROVINCES

Belgrade STANOVNIŠTVO in Serbo-Croatian No 3/4, Jul-Dec 74 and No 1-2, Jan-Jun 75 p 215

[Text] Natural Trends of Population for 1976--According to Place of Registration

	(1)	Zivo- rođeni	(2)	Umrla	(3)	Prirodni priraštaj	(4)	Zaključ. brakovi	(5)	Razved. brakovi	Umrla (6)	odojčad
(7) SFRJ		390 205		182 055		208 150		179 783		24 784		14 208
SR Bosna i Hercegovina		76 123		23 403		52 720		33 992		3 841		2 921
SR Crna Gora		10 168		3 231		6 937		4 044		300		266
SR Hrvatska		66 583		45 694		20 889		37 136		6 369		1 521
SR Makedonija		40 125		12 666		27 459		15 946		1 250		2 576
SR Slovenija		32 187		18 708		13 479		15 827		2 211		583
SR Srbija		165 019		78 353		86 666		72 838		10 813		6 341
Uža teritorija		85 564		48 341		37 223		45 727		7 160		2 373
SAP Kosovo		51 108		9 628		41 480		9 885		345		3 411
SAP Vojvodina		28 347		20 384		7 963		17 226		3 308		557

	(8)	Na 1 000 stanovnika				
(7) SFRJ		18,1		8,4		9,7
SR Bosna i Hercegovina		18,9		5,8		13,1
SR Crna Gora		18,0		5,7		12,3
SR Hrvatska		14,7		10,1		4,6
SR Makedonija		22,5		7,1		15,4
SR Slovenija		18,0		10,4		7,6
SR Srbija		18,6		8,8		9,8
Uža teritorija		15,8		8,9		6,9
SAP Kosovo		35,3		6,7		28,6
SAP Vojvodina		14,3		10,3		4,0

Key:

1. Born live
2. Died
3. Natural increase
4. Marriages
5. Divorces
6. Infants--died
7. SFRY
 - SR Bosnia and Hercegovina
 - SR Croatia
 - SR Macedonia
 - SR Slovenia
 - SR Serbia
 - Serbia proper
 - SAP Kosovo
 - SAP Vojvodina
8. For each 1,000 inhabitants

9110

CSO: 2800

YUGOSLAVIA

MORTALITY RATE ACCORDING TO SEX, AGE IN 1974

Belgrade STANOVNITSTVO in Serbo-Croatian No 3/4, Jul-Dec 74 and No 1-2, Jan-Jun 75 p 221

[Text] Mortality Rate According to Sex, Age in 1974

(1) Umrlih na 1000 stanovnika

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	SR Srbija			
	SFRJ	SR Bosna i Hercegov.	SR Crna Gora	SR Hrvatska	SR Makedonije	SR Slovenija	Svega	(9)	(10) Uža teritorija	(11) SAP Kosovo	(12) SAP Vojvodina

(13) MUŠKO

(14) Ispod 1 godine	44,7	47,6	29,1	29,3	72,2	21,5	48,7	34,0	84,4	30,8	
1-4	1,6	1,7	0,6	0,9	2,1	0,7	2,1	1,1	4,5	0,9	
5-9	0,5	0,6	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,3	0,6	0,5	0,8	0,5	
10-14	0,5	0,4	0,2	0,5	0,5	0,4	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,5	
15-19	0,9	0,9	0,6	1,1	0,8	1,1	0,9	0,8	1,0	0,9	
20-24	1,4	1,3	1,1	1,6	1,2	2,2	1,3	1,2	1,1	1,5	
25-29	1,5	1,6	1,0	1,7	1,0	2,0	1,5	1,3	1,7	1,7	
30-34	1,9	1,9	1,5	2,4	1,4	2,4	1,7	1,7	1,4	2,1	
35-39	2,7	2,8	1,6	3,4	1,8	3,7	2,4	2,2	2,6	3,0	
40-44	4,1	3,8	2,3	5,3	3,2	5,2	3,6	3,3	3,4	4,5	
45-49	6,2	5,8	4,0	7,8	4,8	8,3	5,5	5,0	4,9	7,1	
50-54	9,3	9,9	6,5	11,2	7,1	11,1	8,3	7,7	7,8	10,2	
55-59	14,6	15,0	9,6	17,4	12,5	15,1	13,4	11,9	14,5	16,4	
60-64	23,0	22,6	17,5	26,6	19,3	26,1	21,4	20,2	19,8	24,7	
65-69	36,6	37,2	26,0	41,1	32,1	41,2	34,0	32,3	30,0	40,4	
70-74	56,7	54,7	37,3	63,6	45,6	64,3	54,6	53,3	39,8	63,8	
75-79	99,3	102,2	69,0	106,3	84,7	108,8	96,1	95,1	70,8	105,4	
80-84	145,7	141,7	87,4	165,0	107,7	166,2	144,6	143,5	90,3	171,2	
(15) 85 i više god.	200,9	159,3	133,9	213,9	207,8	268,3	199,0	197,8	137,1	244,3	

[Table continued]

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(9)	(8)	(10)	(11)	(12)
	(16) Ž E N S K O										
(14) Ispod 1 godine	40,2	40,6	27,2	22,0	69,6	16,1	46,4	27,2	93,1	24,1	
1-4	1,6	1,7	0,6	0,8	2,2	0,6	2,1	1,0	4,7	1,0	
5-9	0,4	0,5	0,4	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,4	
10-14	0,3	0,3	0,1	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,5	0,2	
15-19	0,5	0,4	0,5	0,5	0,4	0,6	0,5	0,6	0,3	0,6	
20-24	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,5	0,6	0,5	0,6	0,5	0,9	0,6	
25-29	0,7	0,7	0,7	0,8	0,6	0,6	0,7	0,7	1,1	0,7	
30-34	0,9	1,0	0,6	0,8	0,8	0,9	0,9	0,9	1,0	0,8	
35-39	1,4	1,5	0,8	1,3	1,1	1,4	1,5	1,4	2,1	1,4	
40-44	2,0	2,1	1,8	2,1	1,9	2,2	2,0	1,9	2,0	2,2	
45-49	3,4	3,4	2,7	3,6	2,7	3,7	3,4	3,2	3,6	3,7	
50-54	5,1	5,3	3,4	5,3	5,1	5,3	5,1	4,9	3,8	5,8	
55-59	8,4	9,2	7,3	8,3	7,6	7,6	8,5	8,1	9,1	9,2	
60-64	13,2	16,2	10,0	13,0	12,3	11,4	13,2	12,9	11,0	14,6	
65-69	23,5	28,0	15,5	22,4	23,9	21,0	23,9	23,9	19,6	25,0	
70-74	39,8	43,0	26,8	38,0	35,5	37,9	41,7	42,5	29,3	43,4	
75-79	79,7	85,1	52,5	81,8	79,3	72,3	80,8	81,6	65,3	82,3	
80-84	124,4	110,5	74,1	133,0	104,2	128,4	127,5	128,8	73,8	142,4	
(15) 85 i više god.	190,2	147,3	126,2	203,9	205,8	222,3	190,8	197,9	116,9	206,3	

Key:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Deaths per 1,000 inhabitants | 9. Total |
| 2. SFRY | 10. Serbia proper |
| 3. SR Bosnia and Hercegovina | 11. SAP Kosovo |
| 4. SR Montenegro | 12. SAP Vojvodina |
| 5. SR Croatia | 13. Males |
| 6. SR Macedonia | 14. Under 1 year of age |
| 7. SR Slovenia | 15. 85 and over |
| 8. SR Serbia | 16. Females |

9110

CSO: 2800

YUGOSLAVIA

RECENT SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH ON YOUNG PEOPLE REVIEWED

Belgrade NEDELJNE INFORMATIVNE NOVINE in Serbo-Croatian No 1386, 31 Jul 77
pp 8-10

[Article by Zvonko Simic: "Whosoever Knocks, To Him It Shall Be Opened"]

[Text] What is most important in life? This is the question which researchers of the Institute for Criminological and Sociological Research in Belgrade put to young people all over Yugoslavia. The survey covered more than 2,000 young men and women, workers and students in high school and college. The respondents did not choose among several answers formulated in advance. They themselves expressed what they thought about the values in life according to their abilities and feelings.

When the researchers had sorted out the answers, they concluded that the dominant group of answers expressed an "orientation toward self-realization": far-reaching goals which presuppose cooperation with other people, a feeling for other people, acceptance of other people, and interaction; 44 percent of the answers fell in this group.

Only 18 percent of the young men and women in the survey expressed a different value orientation which the researchers referred to as utilitarianistic and hedonistic (forms of possession and acquisition, material benefit and direct satisfactions such as entertainment, travel and adventure). The hedonistic component (satisfaction) is almost negligible in that combination. Only 0.3 percent of the respondents chose pleasures as the highest values.

Dr Milica Petrovic, senior staff scientist of the Institute for Criminological and Sociological Research, who studied these attitudes of young people as part of a broader study, has published her results and conclusions in the journal MARKSISTICKA MISAO [MARXIST THOUGHT], No 3, 1977. The choice which Yugoslav young people have made between these two basic orientations, as shown by the survey, she considers very favorable.

It is interesting that as many as 24 percent of the respondents chose health as the highest value. Dr Petrovic does not classify health either

in the first or second group of values. She feels that this is more a stereotype than an actual value.

One in Ten

The answers to the other questions show that the young men and women would find it hardest to give up certain humanistic and sentimental values, above all, love, friendship and close family ties. Only 5 percent of the respondents would have difficulty giving up material values. Young workers consistently attribute the least importance to "material success." Meanwhile the "sentimental component" is much more pronounced among university students than among high school students and young workers. The "sentimental component" covers not only love between man and woman, but also family ties. Young workers become independent earlier than university students, and perhaps this had something to do with their choosing these values only half as frequently as did university students.

Dr Petrovic says that young people do not display an incongruity between principles and behavior. They act in accordance with their beliefs. Since young people's value orientation are in line with this society's value system, we can say that young people are not out of step with this society and that there is no generation gap.

The same judgment can also be reached on the basis of its attitude toward the LCY. Close to 70 percent of the respondents would very gladly become members of the League of Communists or have already done so. Another group of approximately 13 percent answered "perhaps" or "probably." Only 1 in 7 would not accept an offer to become a member. Most of these negative answers were made by high school students, some of whom are not even old enough at present to become members. It is a fact, however, that the high school students expressed a somewhat greater "distance" toward those desirable social values and attitudes than the other two groups of young people. On the basis of this general survey it is difficult to say whether age is a factor here or whether young people in secondary school to some extent represent a separate group among young people.

The figures on members of the LCY among young people evoke another type of association. Among the university students 21.3 percent were already members of the LCY, while only 6.1 percent of the young workers surveyed were "in the party." Only 1 out of every 10 queried stated that they would very willingly become members! Why is it more difficult for them to break into the ranks of the party, when on the basis of all resolutions and official intentions the door ought to be wide open to them?

In the response to another question more than 47 percent of the young workers declared that they were not members of any social or civic organization (the LCY, Youth League, the League of Trade Unions, or any cultural or athletic organization, and so on). There is simply no way in which these responses can reflect the actual situation. The great majority of the young workers must at least be members of trade unions. If they forget this fact

in answering a question in the survey, then either they did not understand the question rightly, or, which would be worse, they really do not feel that they are members, and even overlook their membership. Perhaps this answer suggests additional research.

A National Shortcoming

The answers to the simple question How do you feel about your future? reveal how the young men and women feel in this society here and now. About two-thirds of the respondents chose the answer: "Confident." More than one-fifth answered: "I don't think about it." Only 1 in 8 chose the answer: "Anxious." These responses are filled with optimism, and that optimism is one of the essential characteristics of the young generation. Both in this survey and in general.

There was one question in the series on which the respondents obviously had a bad score. This is the question Do you drink? Slightly more than one-third of the university students never drink, while this is true of half of the workers and about three-fifths of the high school students. Approximately two-fifths of the respondents chose the answer "I do not get drunk," which means that they do drink.

Older people, so younger people drink as well. At present and for the foreseeable future alcoholism is the most dangerous drug addiction in Yugoslav society, though the public is incomparably more concerned about drug addiction in the narrower definition. Yet the latter is still marginal both in the number of addicts and in the overall consequences. Thus it appears that young people are following their society and its ideological, but also its real standards, even where it would be a good thing if they did not follow them.

Researchers are less and less ready to frame conclusions about the "young people as a whole." High school students differ from university students in many respects, and the young workers differ from the other two groups. Rural young people are something else again. They are studied less frequently by researchers than the other youth groups. But when they are studied, some extremely interesting peculiarities are discovered.

In his book "Drustveni položaj i orientacija seoske omladine" [Social Status and Orientation of Rural Young People] Edhem Dilic says that there is unquestionably a conflict of generations in rural areas. Misunderstandings arise not only because older people do not respect the desires and needs of young people on the farm, but also because the young people frequently express different attitudes about the needs of the farm and the household, and because they entirely reject the concept of life held by their elders. But in so doing they are coming closer to the true concepts of this society.

Dilic found, for example, in his survey of a Yugoslav sample that rural young people separated into two equal groups in answering the question of

whether religion was necessary. "Yes" and "no" received the same number of votes. That was almost 10 years ago. Things have been changing since that time, and it is clear which direction the change has followed, though we do not have the results of any new survey available to us which would confirm that belief in black and white.

"Their" 1968 and Ours

And there were many things that needed changing. At that time 37 percent of young rural men and women living and working on a private farm declared that they never read a newspaper, 70 percent said that they never read books, 53 percent said that they never went to the movies, 22 percent said that they never listened to the radio, and 57 percent said that they never looked at television!

Emphasizing certain peculiarities of young workers, Dr Velimir Tomanovic of the Social Sciences Institute in Belgrade consistently puts quotes around the word "young" in that expression. According to him, "only those young people we refer to as young students represent youth as a social group in the sociological sense, with all the attributes inherent in that group." The essential thing about young people as a social group is that they do not receive remuneration for their function in the division of labor. Their compensation is deferred until they have assumed work functions in society--when they have completed their studies. "Young" workers have taken up those functions and are remunerated for them.

From a different angle, of course, the psychological or the biological, young workers are young people to whom, as to other youth groups, these lucid words of the French essayist Edgar Maurain (Moren) apply: "It is in the years of youth that the inclination to dispute values crystallizes: repulsion toward hypocritical and conventional relations and their rejection, nonacceptance of taboos and ultimately of the world." And when the fine threads which bind young people to society are tangled and broken, young people withdraw into nihilistic attitudes or take up rebellion, sometimes without a cause and sometimes with political overtones.

(Moren) published these ideas in 1962. Six years later the young people's unrest in Europe, especially in France, confirmed them and went even further. The 1968 student demonstrations were the culmination of a new historical phenomenon following from the fact that in the most highly developed countries of Europe students, taken as a large social group, are no longer the future elite, but a social group that may be exploited, a part of the future wage-earning classes. That is how Dr Tomanovic explains 1968 in the West in his book "Omladina i socijalizam" [Youth and Socialism], which has just been published by Mladost in Belgrade.

A Hint of Criticism

Tomanovic draws striking differences between "their" 1968 and ours. The movements in the advanced capitalist countries were directed against the

social system; in our country they were directed against deformations of the system, especially in the domain of social welfare. There the target was the superstructure: democracy, freedom, participation, education and culture. Here the student movement was most strongly directed against material inequalities in the social sphere. In Yugoslavia the participants and leaders of the student demonstrations in 1968 did not come from the higher and middle strata of Yugoslav society.

Tomanovic conducted research during the events, as those turbulent days took place. Now that time has cooled off the old ferment, the results can be examined with academic calm.

Students from rural areas and the children of unskilled and skilled workers "regularly" and "frequently" attended the student rallies in those days. These are our "lower social strata." Students from the families of private tradespeople were in last place. In the action committees to which the most active were elected, the participation of students from families with earnings below the Yugoslav average was approximately twice as great as that of students from families with above-average earnings.

"The principal figures in the 1968 student demonstrations in Belgrade were students who were the sons of unskilled and semiskilled workers, of the most threatened portions of the working class, and then sons of peasants, above all poor peasants, and sons of other workers. Our 'middle class,' white-collar and intellectual groups were in the background and certainly did not represent the social origin or point of support for the chief figures in the student demonstrations," Dr Tomanovic concludes.

Moreover, students from Belgrade and other major cities were in proportion to their numbers noticeably less involved than students from rural areas and from medium-sized and small cities. In the group of students with very good and excellent grades there were between two- and threefold more members of the action committees than in the group of students with lower average grades.

To the question as to whether the Yugoslav way of building socialism is correct, an even 90 percent of members of the action committees chose the answers "altogether correct" and "mainly correct," though there were considerably more of the latter. Students who were not activists at all chose those same answers in 89 percent of the cases, but the dominance of the second answer ("mainly correct") was somewhat less pronounced.

Only 13 percent of members of action committees expressed disagreement with the proposition: "The guidelines of the LCY Central Committee are the best action program for faster and more consistent achievement of socialism in our country." The rest accepted the proposition. So research into the events in June 1968 shows that the "movement's" activists basically had the same favorable attitude toward the Yugoslav way of building socialism as other students, though they were perhaps a shade more critical. And even that criticism did not concern the blueprint, but certain deformations in practice, Dr Tomanovic concludes.

Sacred Equality

Research on young people has especially flourished since 1968, though interesting research papers had been published in Yugoslavia even earlier.

One survey of the most desirable values of socialism as seen by young people was published in the book from which we have quoted; it puts the personal freedoms of citizens in 9th place among the 10 values offered. Only planning comes after it. The respondents were university students. Even classifying the respondents into seven categories with respect to the financial situation of their parents (see the table) did not particularly affect the results. Was this rather unexpected result a consequence of being accustomed to personal freedoms? Usually you feel a stronger desire for what you lack.

Ranking of Social Values Which Socialism and Our Country Should Give Priority to Today (Opinions of Students Grouped With Respect to Financial Position of Their Parents)

Values (in order listed in questionnaire)	Income Bracket							Total
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	
1. Socialist democracy	VI	VII	VI	V	VII	VI	V	II
2. Increased output	VII	V	IV	III	II	IV	I	III
3. Social equality	I	I	II	I	X	II	IV	VII
4. Social planning	X	X	X	IX	III	IX	X	V-VI
5. Distribution according to work	IX	IX	IX	X	X	VI	VI	X
6. Personal freedoms of citizens	VI	VI	V	VI	VII	IX	VIII	IX
7. Reduction of social inequalities	II	II	I	II	I	I	II	I
8. Self-management	III	III	III	IV	V	IV	III	IV
9. Raising the standard of living	IV	IV	VII	VII	III	V	VII	V-VI
10. Solidarity in society	VIII	VIII	VIII	VIII	VIII	VIII	IX	VIII

(Taken from the book "Omladina i socijalizam" by Velimir Tomanovic)

The first two places in the ranking were taken by two identical values that come under the head of equality. Other research has also confirmed the strong egalitarian orientation of young people, as indeed of older people. Professor Josip Zupanov of Zagreb once called this the egalitarian syndrome--as if it were a mild disease--and interpreted it as a cumulative effect of the inherited egalitarian traditions of an agrarian society and of the struggle for socialism, once again under a traditional (for socialism) banner of equality.

Perhaps another reason why the bent toward egalitarianism in Tomanovic's study comes through with particular strength (as many as two-thirds of the students declared themselves "resolutely in favor of reducing the income spread") because it was published at a time when the 1968 student tensions were still fresh in our memories.

If we are to go by polls, there is never enough egalitarianism. The demands frequently go beyond the bounds of realism. It is natural that young workers should be less inclined toward egalitarianism than university and high school students, precisely because they are closer to the realities of the workplace and life in general. While only 4 percent of university students were opposed to reducing income spread, 20 percent of young workers were so opposed.

At the same time Yugoslav society is certainly one of the most egalitarian societies of the present time. Many a reader will find it hard to agree with this statement when he looks across the way at his neighbor's expensive automobile and when he thinks about his weekend cottage. But let us remember that the privileges of status have almost disappeared, and that the highest salary exceeds the average by approximately 3.5-fold. Our income spread is narrower than that of either east or west. Moreover, total income is still taxed on a general scale. Of the 20,000 dwelling units being annually built in Warsaw, about three-fourths are assigned to promote personnel development. Social inequities in Yugoslavia which are truly excessive are not within the bounds of lawfulness. They are as a rule the consequence of criminal activity.

It is thought that wider spreads act as an economic incentive, and that reduction of social inequities is a reasonable price of social peace in society. Even in Yugoslavia demands for more egalitarianism have aroused a particular response in moments of social tensions. This greater egalitarianism demanded by the great majority and disputed by the modest minority nevertheless is and remains a lasting value orientation of the entire society and of young people particularly. It is actually a pillar of stability.

[Box at top of p 10]

Are you in love?	Yes	1,447	responses
	A little, I am not sure, or the like	172	"
	No	488	"
Can love give a meaning to life?	Yes	1,745	"
	Indefinite answers	245	"
	No	117	"

(Research of the Institute for Criminological and Sociological Research)

7045
CSO: 2800

SURVEY OF MEMBERSHIP IN LEAGUE OF COMMUNISTS OF YUGOSLAVIA (LCY)

Belgrade JUGOSLOVENSKI PREGLED in Serbo-Croatian No 12, 19 Dec 76 pp 453-458

[Article by Boris Vuskovic, member of the Commission for Ideology and Theory of the Presidium of the LCY Central Committee]

[Text] In the postwar period the total number of LCY members has increased more than eightfold, but in particular periods it fluctuated in a variety of ways. While the total number of members is connected to the success of the postwar years in socialist development of the country, the uneven growth in particular periods is a function of major sociopolitical events that have been crucial for the country's existence and socialist transformation.¹

In 1975 the LCY membership included 6.1 percent of the total population and 8.9 percent of all Yugoslav adults, that is, the population over 17 years of age. Such a high percentage is not found in the majority of developed and highly influential political organizations in the world.²

The structure of the membership of the LCY in recent years has seen significant positive changes. Its socioprofessional structure has improved with the greatest growth coming in the number of workers who are the direct producers. The percentage of women in total membership has also grown and amounted to 22 percent in 1975. Finally, the membership of the LCY has noticeably become younger.

Fluctuations of the Number of LCY Members

There are no precise data on membership in the Communist Party of Yugoslavia before the war since it was an illegal party at that time. At the time of the Fifth National Conference of the CPY in November 1940, the CPY had 6,455 members and the League of Communist Youth of Yugoslavia (LCYY) had 17,800 members. In the struggle against monarchist and fascist Yugoslavia, and especially during the resistance to the Triple Alliance membership of Yugoslavia, the influence of both the CPY and the LCYY grew rapidly, so that when the uprising began in July 1941 the party contained 12,000 members and the LCYY, 30,000.

As the initiator and ideological and organizational leader of the struggle for national liberation, the Communist Party of Yugoslavia during the course of the war grew into the leading sociopolitical force in the country, and its membership expanded rapidly. Although some 50,000 of its members died in battle, in January 1945 the CPY had 91,386 members.

The growth in membership of the CPY in the period 1945-1952, i.e., until the Sixth Party Congress in 1952 when the name was changed to the League of Communists of Yugoslavia, is connected to two significant social events: the Resolution of the Informbureau, and the introduction of workers self-management. Specifically, although in 1946 and 1947 marked growth occurred, the number of members in the CPY had the greatest relative and absolute growth in 1948, during the clash with Stalinism, increasing the fastest in the entire postwar period (by 197,791 members), so that by 1948 the CPY had three times more members than in 1945.

Further growth of the membership was encouraged by the introduction of workers self-management, so that in 1952 the CPY had 772,920 members.

After an 8-year period of growth in LCY membership, a period of decline came in 1953-1955. In the period 1956-1960 a critical look was taken at social weaknesses which were then overcome. Thus at the Sixth LCY Plenum in 1956 there was sharp criticism of negative manifestations in the society, and in February 1958 the Central Committee Executive Committee of the LCY sent the membership a Letter on Negative Manifestations. The Seventh LCY Congress was also held in 1958. In this period the number of LCY members grew rapidly, so that in 1960 it surpassed a million (1,006,285).

In the period 1961-1967 the membership of the LCY was relatively stable, fluctuating between trends of relative decline and mild growth, but remaining essentially at 1960 levels (the index 1967/1960 was 100.7).

After a large increase in LCY membership in 1968 of 130,000, in the period 1969-1972 a decline set in, so that the number of LCY members in 1972 was nearly the same as it had been in 1967.

The 3-year period 1973-1975 was marked by major events in the political life of the LCY, beginning with the Letter of the LCY President and the Executive Bureau of the Presidium of the LCY in September 1972, and extending to the Tenth LCY Congress. These events were accompanied by major occurrences in the society as a whole which brought significant changes in the progress of building the socialist self-management society. All of this reflected on the number of LCY members, which grew at a rapid pace so that in 1975 it amounted to 1,302,843, the largest number of members in the history of the LCY.

Table 1. The Number of Members in the LCY (and CPY)

Godina (1)	(2) Članovi SKJ	(3) Godina	(4) Članovi SKJ
1941	12 000	1960	1 006 285
1945	161 880	1961	1 035 003
1946	258 303	1962	1 018 331
1947	285 147	1963	1 019 013
1948	482 938	1964	1 031 634
1949	530 812	1965	1 046 202
1950	607 443	1966	1 046 018
1951	704 617	1967	1 013 500
1952	772 920	1968	1 146 084
1953	700 030	1969	1 111 682
1954	654 669	1970	1 049 184
1955	624 806	1971	1 025 476
1956	648 616	1972	1 009 947
1957	755 066	1973	1 076 711
1958	829 953	1974	1 192 466
1959	935 856	1975	1 302 843

Key:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Year | 3. Year |
| 2. Members of the LCY | 4. Members of the LCY |

The continuation of this study examines fluctuations in the membership structure of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia in the period 1968-1975.

The Membership Structure of the LCY by Sex

In the total LCY membership, women make up one-fifth (Table 2), which does not correspond to their percentage of the total population of the country.

Table 2. Women Members of the LCY

(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968 = 100)	(3) Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
1968	218 713	100,00
1969	212 877	97,33
1970	201 946	92,33
1971	200 022	91,45
1972	196 937	90,04
1973	214 503	98,08
1974	248 182	113,47
1975	281 319	128,62

Key:

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| 1. Number of members | 3. Portion of the total number of LCY members (%) |
| 2. Index (1968 = 100) | |

Between the republic and provincial LC organizations there are, however, major variations in the percentage of women in the LCY membership. Women, for example, make up fully one-third of the LC membership in Slovenia, an exceptionally high proportion, while they are only one-tenth of the total number of members in Kosovo and Macedonia. Such differences are conditioned

primarily by specific socioeconomic factors that operate in individual republic or provincial LC organizations. In the 1969-1972 period, which was typified by decreases in the total LCY membership, the decrease in women members was relatively slight, so that their overall proportion of the total membership increased.

The membership by sex has changed markedly in the period 1973-1975, when the number of women grew by 84,382, or 43 percent, while the total membership increased by 29 percent. In this period not only the proportion of women in total LCY membership increased (from 19.5 to 21.6 percent), but also the representation of the overall female population in the LCY membership.

The Age Profile of the LCY Membership

During the period when the number of members in the LCY was decreasing (1969-1972), there was also a deterioration in the age profile of the membership (Table 3): the proportion of members below 40 years decreased from 67.9 percent in 1968 to 58.9 percent in 1972. Even then, however, the age structure of the LCY membership was more favorable than the profile for the entire population. Hence in 1971 persons from 18 to 40 years composed 60.5 percent of total LCY membership, and 50.3 percent of the total adult population of the country.

Table 3. The Age Profile of LCY Membership

	(1) Starosne grupacije			
	(2) do 27	28-40	41-50	50 i više
(3) — Broj članova —				
1968	281 713	496 108	267 950	100 313
1969	259 113	472 999	276 608	102 960
1970	218 967	433 956	283 731	112 530
1971	212 434	407 787	282 196	123 059
1972	211 686	383 609	280 840	133 812
1973	258 124	391 078	285 119	142 390
1974	323 787	417 128	292 052	159 499
1975	371 434	448 748	302 359	180 302
(4) — Indeks (1968=100) —				
1968	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
1969	92,0	95,3	103,2	102,6
1970	77,7	87,5	105,9	112,2
1971	75,4	82,2	105,3	122,7
1972	75,1	77,3	104,8	133,4
1973	91,6	78,8	106,4	142,0
1974	114,9	84,1	109,0	159,0
1975	131,9	90,5	112,8	179,7
(5) — Struktura (u %; ukupan broj članova SKJ = 100) —				
1968	24,6	43,3	23,4	8,7
1969	23,3	42,5	24,9	9,3
1970	20,9	41,4	27,0	10,7
1971	20,7	39,8	27,5	12,0
1972	21,0	38,0	27,8	13,2
1973	24,0	36,3	26,5	13,2
1974	27,1	35,0	24,5	13,4
1975	28,5	34,4	23,2	13,9

Key:

1. Age groups
2. Up to 27
3. Number of members
4. Index (1968 = 100)
5. Percentage share; total LCY membership = 100

In the period 1973-1975 the age profile of LCY membership improved. Young people under 27 years of age comprised 54.5 percent of newly accepted members, so that their portion of the total LCY membership increased from 21 percent in 1972 to 28.5 percent in 1975. Thus the share of LCY membership under 40 years of age grew also--from 58.9 percent in 1972 to 62.9 percent in 1975.

The age profile of the LCY membership is more favorable than the structure of membership in most of the largest communist parties.³

The Socioprofessional Structure of LCY Membership

Fluctuations in the socioprofessional structure of LCY membership in the last 7 years can be divided into two periods: 1966-1972 and 1973-1975. The first saw a decrease in the number of members in all socioprofessional groups,⁴ other than the specialist category, while the other was typified by growth of the membership in all groups without exception (Table 4).

Table 4. The Socioprofessional Structure of LCY Membership in 1968, 1972 and 1975

	1968	1972	(1) Struktura (u %) 1975		
			1975	1968	1972
Ukupno (2)	1 062 268	944 628	1 220 352	100,0	100,0
(3) Radnici	337 939	281 111	366 272	31,9	29,8
(4) Individualni poljoprivredni proizvođači	82 206	59 743	65 910	7,8	6,3
(5) Stručnjaci i umetnici	174 828	188 184	258 991	16,5	20,0
(6) Administrativno osoblje	139 052	124 277	154 042	13,1	13,2
(7) Rukovodioci i funkcioneri	82 718	74 271	93 929	7,8	7,9
(8) Penzioneri	90 238	91 789	100 251	8,5	9,7
(9) Školska omladina	76 633	54 358	96 139	7,2	5,8
Ostali (10)	78 654	70 895	84 818	7,2	7,3

Key:

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Percentage share | 6. Administrative personnel |
| 2. Total | 7. Directors and officials |
| 3. Workers | 8. Pensioners |
| 4. Individual farm producers | 9. School youth |
| 5. Specialists and artists | 10. Others |

Workers: Changes in the number of workers in the LCY were negative in the period 1969-1972, but very favorable in the 1973-1975 period.

In the period 1969-1972 the total number of worker members of the LCY decreased by 17 percent, compared to the total membership decrease of 11 percent. This brought a relative decline in the portion of workers in the total LCY membership. The overall downward trend in LCY members from the ranks of workers was also accompanied by negative structural changes. The decline in workers in the party hit those in material production the

hardest, including factory workers, miners and construction workers (whose numbers in the LCY decreased by 17 percent). The next greatest decrease came in workers of the youngest category (up to 27 years), whose numbers also went down 17 percent, and especially highly skilled younger workers.

These trends in worker membership in the LCY were slowed and changed fundamentally after the Letter of the LCY President and the Executive Bureau of the LCY Presidium, that is, in the period 1973-1975, when the number of worker members of the LCY grew both absolutely and relatively, and also improved in structure.

Table 5. Worker Members of the LCY

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968=100)	Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %	(3)
1968	337 939	100,00	31,89	
1969	332 311	98,33	32,33	
1970	304 039	89,97	31,24	
1971	286 862	84,89	30,01	
1972	281 111	83,14	29,80	
1973	301 204	89,13	29,94	
1974	337 245	99,79	30,18	
1975	366 272	108,38	29,95	

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index

3. Percentage of the total LCY membership

For the first time in some 10 years the number of worker members of the LCY recorded an absolute increase in the period 1973-1975, growing more than any other socioprofessional group. Each year the growth in the number of workers was greater than the growth in any other socioprofessional group. Thus in comparison to the preceding year, the number of workers in the LCY grew in 1973 by 20,093, or 32.1 percent of the total membership increase; in 1974 by 36,041, also about a third of total membership growth (32.4 percent), and in 1975 by 29,027, something more than one-fourth (27.52 percent) of the total membership increase.

As a result of such variations, the portion of workers in the total membership of the LCY has grown, albeit only slightly. In evaluating this increase it must, however, be kept in mind that there has been a significant absolute growth in LCY membership from other socioprofessional groups, especially specialists and students of high schools and higher education. The number of workers accepted into the LCY is, however, greater than the indicated growth in the number of workers in the LCY membership. Decreases in the percentage of workers are determined, among other things, by great socioprofessional mobility, i.e., transfers into other occupational groups.

The high absolute growth in the number of workers in the LCY in this period was accompanied by exceptionally positive changes in their age and qualificational structure and the structure according to activity, which overcame previous negative trends.

Among changes in the age profile of workers, of special significance is the relative increase in the number of young workers (those under 27 years) among LCY membership. In the 1973-1975 period there was an absolute increase of 56,297 young workers in the LCY, more than double the number of other workers entering the membership (28,864); it was also greater than the increase in members from all other professions, except for specialists. Consequently, the percentage of young workers in the total number of worker members of the LCY grew strikingly from 22.8 percent in 1972 to 32.8 percent in 1975. Today therefore every third worker in the LCY is younger than 27 years of age.

Table 6. Workers Under 27 Years of Age as Members of the LCY

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968=100)	(3) Učesto u % u ukupnom broju članova SKJ iz reda svih mladih		(5) svih radnika
			(4)		
1968	87 664	100,0	35,33		25,94
1969	80 949	92,3	35,67		24,36
1970	66 343	75,7	34,45		21,82
1971	63 255	72,2	33,11		22,05
1972	63 999	73,0	33,43		22,77
1973	80 859	92,2	34,70		26,85
1974	103 678	118,3	35,16		30,74
1975	120 296	137,2	35,43		32,84

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index with 1968 = 100
3. Percentage of categories in total LCY membership
4. All younger workers
5. All workers

According to the qualification structure of young workers in the LCY, in the period 1973-1975 opposite tendencies were observed from those in 1969-1972. The number of young highly skilled workers more than doubled (with an index of 212.3), and young skilled workers nearly doubled, so that today highly skilled and skilled young workers comprise three-quarters (74.2 percent) of the total number of young workers in the LCY. This is an exceptionally favorable ratio in comparison to the qualification structure of total employed young workers, where highly skilled and skilled workers make up just about one-half.

Especially important are the positive changes in the structure of young LCY members under 27 by sex. The percentage of women among young LCY members had increased from 30.1 percent in 1972 to 38.3 percent in 1975, which is nearly double the share of women in overall membership in the LCY. On the other hand, although it has always been lower than the number of women in total LCY membership, the number of women among the working young people has been growing gradually in the LCY from 6.3 percent in 1972 to 8.3 percent in 1974.

In the past 3 years the number of workers in the LCY who are employed in material production has grown.

Table 7. Qualification Structure of Young Workers in the LCY Membership

(1) VKV radnici		(2) KV radnici		(3) PKV radnici		(4) NKV radnici	
(5) broj	indeks	broj	indeks	broj	indeks	broj	indeks
(1968 = 100)		(1968 = 100)		(1968 = 100)		(1968 = 100)	
(6)							
1968	6 537	100,0	54 599	100,0	13 728	100,0	12 800
1969	5 785	88,5	50 935	93,3	13 164	95,9	11 065
1970	4 571	69,9	43 207	79,1	9 418	68,6	9 147
1971	4 033	61,7	41 660	76,3	8 460	61,6	9 102
1972	3 775	57,7	42 479	77,8	8 395	61,2	9 350
1973	4 869	74,5	54 114	99,1	10 650	77,6	11 226
1974	6 596	100,9	70 059	128,3	13 360	97,3	13 363
1975	8 015	122,6	81 184	148,7	15 319	111,6	15 778

Key:

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Highly skilled workers | 4. Unskilled workers |
| 2. Skilled workers | 5. Number |
| 3. Semi-skilled workers | 6. Index at 1968 = 100 |

The increase in the number of workers employed in industry, mining and construction in the LCY was relatively greater than increases in the total membership (with an index of 139.0 compared to 129.6), and the total number of workers in LCY membership (index 130.3). The number of worker members in the total membership of the LCY increased markedly from 46.8 percent in 1972 to 49.9 percent in 1975. The number of worker members in the three indicated sectors increased by 51,376, thus including fully two-thirds (60.3 percent) of the total number of new worker members in the LCY. To this should be added the fact that nearly three-quarters of the engineers and technicians with LCY membership are employed in material production, meaning that, in contrast to former trends, recently the number of LCY members employed in material production has been growing noticeably.

Table 8. Workers Employed in Industry, Mining and Construction in the LCY Membership

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Broj članova	Indeks (1968=100)	Učešće u ukupnom broju radnika — članova SKJ u %
1968	165 876	100,00	49,08
1969	159 163	95,95	47,90
1970	144 841	87,32	47,64
1971	136 062	82,03	47,43
1972	131 578	78,32	46,81
1973	144 997	87,41	48,14
1974	167 816	101,17	49,76
1975	182 954	110,30	49,95

Key:

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 1. Number of members | 3. Percentage of the total worker membership of the LCY |
| 2. Index with 1968 = 100 | |

Individual Agricultural Producers

The percentage of individual private agricultural producers in the LCY decreased in the period under consideration, absolutely from 1969-1972 and relatively after those years (Table 9).

Table 9. Individual Agricultural Producers in the LCY Membership

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968 = 100)	(3) Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
1968	82 206	100,00	7,76
1969	79 015	96,12	7,69
1970	66 982	81,48	6,88
1971	64 052	77,92	6,70
1972	59 743	72,67	6,33
1973	59 967	72,95	5,96
1974	62 178	75,64	5,57
1975	63 910	80,18	5,39

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index with 1968 = 100
3. Percentage of the total LCY membership

Despite the fall in the percentage of individual agricultural producers in LCY membership, the last 3 years brought a turning point in that trend, which means that after the Letter of the LCY President and the Executive Bureau of the LCY Presidium, the LCY has been paying much greater attention to this group.

Specialists represent the only socioprofessional groups whose percentage in the LCY membership has constantly grown, both absolutely and relatively. It is true that in the 4-year period when total membership was dropping, the absolute increase in the number of specialists was less significant (with the index 1972/1968 = 107.6), but because of the decline in the overall membership their share of the total LCY membership increased the more noticeably, from 16.5 percent in 1968 to 19.95 percent in 1972.

The number of specialists in the LCY grew significantly in the last 3-year period, by 70,807 or 37.6 percent compared to the 29.6 percent growth of overall LCY membership.

Thanks to that the percentage of specialists in the total LCY membership increased from 20 percent in 1972 to 21.2 percent in 1975, taking the second place next to workers in percentages, and with a greater difference relative to other socioprofessional categories than to workers.

Specialists form a clearly distinguished social group that contains representatives of a number of socioprofessional strata.

For example, in 1968 workers in educational fields formed the largest segment of the specialist group, 36.2 percent. Behind them came engineers

and technicians with 27.6 percent, then medical workers with 10.9 percent, economists and lawyers with 10.7 percent, and finally, scholarly and cultural workers with 5.4 percent (with the remaining small group made up of various other specialists and artists).

Table 10. Specialists in the LCY Membership.

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968=100)	(3) Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
1968	174 828	100,00	16,50
1969	183 667	105,06	17,87
1970	184 131	105,32	18,92
1971	184 253	105,39	19,28
1972	188 184	107,64	19,95
1973	206 773	118,27	20,55
1974	231 394	132,36	20,71
1975	258 991	148,14	21,18

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index with 1968 = 100
3. Percentage of the total LCY membership

In the period when total LCY membership was falling (1969-1972), the absolute growth of the total number of specialists was confined to absolute increases in engineers, technicians, economists and lawyers, while the numbers from other categories of specialists fell in absolute terms.

In the last 3-year period there were quite significant changes both in the absolute and the relative numbers of LCY members from the ranks of individual categories of specialists. In the period the greatest growth came in the LCY members among scholarly and cultural workers (with an index of 148.8), then engineers and technicians (146.1), followed by medical workers (136.4), economists and lawyers (134.5), and finally, educational workers (132.4). The growth in the number of LCY members from the various categories of specialists was especially greater when compared to overall increases in LCY membership in the last 3 years (129.6).

As a result of these fluctuations major changes have occurred in the percentages of individual categories of specialists in the overall structure of specialist members of the LCY. Overtaking the educational workers (with 30.1 percent), the engineers and technicians have become most numerous (with 30.9 percent). The next group is considerably smaller; the economists and lawyers have 13.6 percent of the total, followed by medical workers with only 9.2 percent, and finally, scholarly and cultural workers with 4.5 percent of the total number of specialist members of the LCY.

Administrative Personnel

According to the number of members (154,042), administrative personnel form the third largest group in the LCY membership. During the period of

decreasing LCY membership (1969-1972), the number of members from the ranks of administrators decreased insignificantly (with an index of 89.4) compared to the decrease in the overall membership (with an index of 89.1), so that this category gained a slightly larger portion of the total membership, growing from 13.12 percent in 1968 to 13.17 percent in 1972.

In the period 1973-1975 the number of LCY members from among administrative personnel also grew, but that growth (with an index of 124.0) was less than the growth of the overall membership (129.6), so that the share of administrative personnel in overall LCY membership fell from 13.2 percent in 1972 to 12.6 percent in 1975.

Table 11. Administrative Personnel in the LCY Membership

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968 = 100)	(3) Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
1968	139 052	100,00	13,12
1969	137 661	99,00	13,39
1970	125 634	90,35	12,91
1971	124 037	89,20	12,98
1972	124 277	89,37	13,17
1973	128 918	92,71	12,81
1974	141 383	101,68	12,65
1975	154 042	110,78	12,60

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index with 1968 = 100
3. Percentage of total LCY membership

During the entire 7 years of 1969-1975, the number of members of the LCY from the ranks of administrative personnel still registered an absolute growth index of 110.8, although its share of total LCY membership decreased.

Leaders and Officials

Fluctuations in the numbers of members from the ranks of leaders and officials (Table 12) was almost identical to the figures for administrative personnel.

Table 12. Leaders and Officials in LCY Membership

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968 = 100)	(3) Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
1968	82 718	100,0	7,81
1969	67 104	81,12	6,53
1970	73 959	89,41	7,60
1971	76 355	92,31	7,99
1972	74 271	89,79	7,87
1973	77 961	94,25	7,75
1974	84 667	102,36	7,38
1975	93 929	113,55	7,68

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index with 1968 = 100
3. Percentage of total LCY membership

In the period 1969-1972, because of the slightly smaller decline compared to the average decline of total membership, leaders and officials as a category slightly increased their share of the total membership in the LCY, from 7.81 percent to 7.87 percent. In the period 1972-1975, however, the growth in the number of LCY members from among leaders and officials (with an index of 125.4) was lower than the growth rate for total membership, so that their percentage in total membership in the LCY decreased to 7.68 percent in 1975.

Pensioners comprise a group whose number in the LCY membership has grown at an almost unchangingly steady pace. Therefore, their share in total LCY membership in the period 1969-1972 increased due to the decreases in other categories from 8.52 percent in 1968 to 9.73 percent in 1972, while in the period 1973-1975, which saw relatively greater growth in other categories, the share of pensioners fell not only in comparison to 1972, but also relative to 1968.

Table 13. Pensioners in the LCY Membership

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968=100)	(3) Učesto u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
1968	90 238	100,00	8,52
1969	91 364	101,25	8,89
1970	91 067	100,92	9,36
1971	91 325	101,20	9,53
1972	91 789	101,72	9,73
1973	94 682	104,92	9,41
1974	98 320	108,96	8,80
1975	100 251	111,10	8,20

Key:

1. Number of members
2. Index with 1968 = 100
3. Percentage of total LCY membership

It should, however, be kept in mind that the number of LCY members among pensioners grows only by the natural aging and retirement of other members.

School Youth

Fluctuations in the numbers of LCY members among school youths have been greatly varying in the periods under consideration, both when the group as a whole is regarded and in particular categories, including university students, students at schools for highly skilled occupations, and students of other secondary schools.

In the period 1969-1972 when total LCY membership was decreasing, it was precisely these categories which saw the greatest declines.

On the contrary, in the 3 years 1973-1975 while overall membership was growing, school youth was in first place in relative growth rate (with an

index of 176.9); only the category of employed worker youth grew relatively faster. That is in accordance with the fact that the growth in total membership came under the impact of greater youth representation. Thanks to the high rate of growth in membership from their ranks in the period 1973-1975, school youth compensated for the lag in new members from their ranks in the period 1969-1972, and increased their share in total membership, not only in relation to 1972 but also compared to 1968, i.e., from 7.23 percent in 1968 to 7.86 percent in 1975, thereby taking fifth place among the categorical structure of LCY membership.

Table 14. School Youth in the LCY Membership

	(1) Broj članova	(2) Indeks (1968=100)	(3) Učešće u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %
(4) — Studenti —			
1968	36 399	100,00	3,43
1969	37 741	103,69	3,67
1970	37 316	102,52	3,83
1971	36 238	99,56	3,79
1972	33 899	93,13	3,59
1973	35 980	98,85	3,58
1974	48 222	132,48	4,32
1975	60 192	165,37	4,62
(5) — Učenici (bez škola za kvalifikovane radnike) —			
1968	31 865	100,00	3,01
1969	21 330	66,94	2,07
1970	12 987	40,76	1,33
1971	15 705	49,29	1,64
1972	16 126	50,61	1,71
1973	20 801	65,28	2,07
1974	26 173	82,14	2,34
1975	28 707	90,09	2,20
(6) — Učenici škola za kvalifikovane radnike —			
1968	8 369	100,00	0,79
1969	4 760	56,88	0,46
1970	2 846	34,01	0,29
1971	4 062	48,54	0,42
1972	4 333	51,77	0,46
1973	6 420	76,71	0,64
1974	7 356	87,90	0,66
1975	7 240	86,51	0,56

Key:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Number of members | 5. Secondary school students not including highly skilled trade school |
| 2. Index with 1968 = 100 | 6. Students of highly skilled trade schools |
| 3. Percentage of total LCY membership | |
| 4. University students | |

Like the specialists, the school youth form a complex group where variations depend on various and at times contradictory tendencies in individual categories.

For example, the sharp fall in total membership from school youth in the period 1969-1972 was largely the consequence of declines in enrollments in

secondary schools and trade schools, where the numbers were halved; the number of university students declined markedly less than the overall decrease in LCY membership.

In the period 1973-1975 the number of LCY members from the ranks of all three student categories grew in much the same way, by 77.6 percent among university students, by 67.1 percent among trade school students, and by 78.0 percent among other secondary school students.

Despite this relatively equal growth all three categories failed both absolutely and relatively to regain their share of total LCY membership of 1968 because of the sharp decreases in the period 1969-1972. Therefore the absolute and relative increases in the percentage of school youth from universities and all forms of secondary education, showed a significant increase in student participation from 1968 to 1975.

In harmony with such fluctuations, the participation of students in the total LCY membership from the ranks of school youth also grew, from 47.5 percent in 1968 to 62.6 percent in 1975. Since school youth ranks fifth among the groups in the structure of LCY membership, students of universities as the largest category of this group form a very important segment of the LCY membership structure.

Other groups in the LCY include protective personnel, craftsmen, unemployed, housewives, and workers holding temporary employment abroad (Table 15).

Table 15. Other Groups in the LCY Membership

	(1) Osoblje zaštite	(2) Zanat- lije	(3) Nezapo- sleni	(4) Doma- ćice	(5) Radnici na privremenom radu u ino- stranstvu	(6) Ostali
1968	24 449	4 958	15 721	29 994	...	3 532
1969	24 423	4 641	14 136	28 993	...	2 661
1970	24 506	4 507	11 318	26 506	6 769	2 481
1971	23 724	4 505	10 661	25 318	8 145	1 976
1972	24 198	4 323	9 955	22 461	8 429	1 519
1973	25 907	4 394	13 023	21 412	8 689	1 922
1974	28 472	4 470	15 625	21 127	8 700	...
1975	30 850	8 429	20 923	20 680	7 938	...

Key:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1. Protective personnel | 4. Housewives |
| 2. Craftsmen | 5. Workers temporarily employed abroad |
| 3. Unemployed | 6. Others |

The number of LCY members from among the indicated groups declined from 1969-1972 and increased in 1973-1975, with the exception of housewives where the numbers declined throughout the period, since this group is the most susceptible to socioprofessional fragmentation. The growth of unemployed persons in the LCY membership was strongly influenced by the increase in unemployed young members, primarily from among recent graduates of schools.

Fluctuations in the Number of Members of Republic and Provincial LCY Organizations

In the 4-year period 1969-1972 there was a marked decrease in the number of members in essentially all republics and autonomous provinces, even though there were significant variations in the intensity and the periods of membership decreases in individual areas.⁵ In relation to the average decreases for the entire country, membership losses were relatively less in Montenegro, Serbia proper, and Slovenia, and relatively higher in the other republics and in Kosovo and the greatest in Vojvodina.

Regarded from the point of view of periods of decline in membership, the greatest losses in practically all republics and provinces was during 1969-1970, while in 1972 the decreases were minimal or even ceased, with the number of members in Macedonia and Vojvodina even increasing in comparison with 1971. This contributed significantly to alleviating the decline in LCY membership in Vojvodina for the 4-year period. In contrast, the greatest decline in members came in Croatia and Slovenia precisely in 1972. That circumstance may be partially explained by the negative political differentiation taking place then, i.e., exclusion of members and inadequate acceptance of members.

Table 16. LCY Membership by Republics and Provinces

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Godina	Broj članova SK	Indeks (1968=100)	Učestvo u ukupnom broju članova SKJ u %	Obuhvaćenost odraslog stanovništva članstvom u SK u %
(6)	Bosna i Hercegovina	1968	158 110	100,00	14,92	7,52
		1969	152 232	96,28	14,81	7,13
		1970	142 313	90,00	14,62	6,58
		1971	140 733	89,00	14,72	6,40
		1972	138 833	87,81	14,72	6,17
		1973	148 061	93,64	14,72	6,47
		1974	170 306	107,71	15,24	7,31
		1975	192 263	121,60	15,72	8,14
(7)	Crna Gora	1968	40 850	100,00	3,85	13,13
		1969	40 876	100,06	3,98	12,95
		1970	38 016	93,06	3,91	11,88
		1971	38 168	93,43	3,99	11,74
		1972	38 067	93,18	4,03	11,49
		1973	41 134	100,70	4,09	12,23
		1974	45 130	110,48	4,04	13,19
		1975	48 930	119,78	4,00	14,14
(8)	Hrvatska	1968	234 756	100,00	22,15	7,57
		1969	228 066	97,15	22,19	7,28
		1970	214 256	91,26	22,01	6,79
		1971	214 614	91,42	22,45	6,73
		1972	206 985	88,17	21,94	6,44
		1973	210 339	89,60	20,91	6,48
		1974	222 563	94,81	19,92	6,79
		1975	237 977	101,77	19,46	7,22

[Table continued]

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Godina	Broj čla- nova SK	Indeks (1968=100)	Učešće u ukupnom broju čla- nova SKJ u %	Obuhvaćenost odraslog stanovništva članstvom u SK u %
(9) Makedonija	1968	76 042	100,00	7,18	8,04
	1969	72 117	94,83	7,01	7,47
	1970	66 042	86,84	6,78	6,70
	1971	66 433	87,36	6,95	6,60
	1972	67 083	88,21	7,11	6,53
	1973	70 626	92,88	7,02	6,73
	1974	76 841	101,05	6,88	7,18
	1975	84 250	110,79	6,89	7,66
(10) Slovenija	1968	68 843	100,00	6,50	5,82
	1969	68 187	98,09	6,63	5,70
	1970	66 663	96,83	6,85	5,52
	1971	63 628	95,32	6,87	5,38
	1972	62 997	91,50	6,68	5,11
	1973	67 069	97,42	6,66	5,38
	1974	74 470	108,17	6,66	5,91
	1975	83 657	121,52	6,84	6,59
(11) Srbija	1968	481 141	100,00	45,40	8,52
	1969	466 496	96,95	45,38	8,15
	1970	446 057	92,70	45,83	7,69
	1971	430 257	89,42	45,02	7,32
	1972	429 507	89,26	45,52	7,21
	1973	468 787	97,43	46,60	7,77
	1974	527 993	109,74	47,26	8,64
	1975	575 713	119,66	47,09	9,30
(12) područje van pokrajina	1968	305 093	100,00	28,79	8,34
	1969	299 753	98,25	29,16	8,08
	1970	290 974	95,37	29,90	7,74
	1971	282 966	92,75	29,61	7,42
	1972	279 451	91,59	29,62	7,24
	1973	304 653	99,86	30,28	7,80
	1974	344 861	113,03	30,87	8,72
	1975	370 088	121,30	30,27	9,25
(13) Kosovo	1968	50 316	100,00	4,75	8,52
	1969	48 266	95,93	4,69	7,99
	1970	45 004	89,44	4,62	7,29
	1971	44 512	88,46	4,66	7,03
	1972	43 916	87,28	4,65	6,76
	1973	47 791	94,98	4,75	7,17
	1974	52 437	104,22	4,69	7,67
	1975	58 170	115,61	4,76	8,39
(14) Vojvodina	1968	125 732	100,00	11,86	9,00
	1969	118 477	94,24	11,53	8,40
	1970	110 079	87,56	11,31	7,74
	1971	102 779	81,76	10,75	7,16
	1972	106 140	84,43	11,25	7,33
	1973	116 343	92,53	11,57	7,97
	1974	130 695	103,95	11,70	8,88
	1975	147 455	117,28	12,06	9,90

Key:

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. Year | 8. Croatia |
| 2. Number of LC members | 9. Macedonia |
| 3. Index with 1968 = 100 | 10. Slovenia |
| 4. Percentage of total LCY membership | 11. Serbia as a whole |
| 5. Percentage of adult population in LCY | 12. Serbia proper |
| 6. Bosnia and Hercegovina | 13. Kosovo |
| 7. Montenegro | 14. Vojvodina |

In the period after the Letter of the LCY President and the Executive Bureau of the LCY, and the Tenth Congress of the LCY, the number of members grew markedly in all republics and provinces, with the greatest growth occurring both absolutely and relatively in 1974. In the 3-year period 1973-1975, and in relation to 1972, the largest increase in membership was in Vojvodina (with 38.9 percent) and Bosnia and Hercegovina (with 38.5 percent); they were followed by Slovenia, Kosovo and Serbia proper, each with about one-third increase, while membership growth was only about one-fourth in Montenegro (28.5 percent) and Macedonia (25.6 percent). The least growth came in Croatia with 15 percent.

In the total 7-year period of 1969-1975, that is, in 1975 in comparison with 1968, the greatest growth in LCY membership came in Bosnia and Hercegovina (21.6 percent), followed by Slovenia (21.5 percent), Serbia proper (21.3 percent), Montenegro (19.8 percent), Serbia as a whole (19.7 percent), with slightly lesser increases in Vojvodina (17.3 percent) and Kosovo (15.6 percent), and with significantly lesser increases Macedonia (10.8 percent) and Croatia with only a very slight increase over 1968 (1.8 percent). These major differences in fluctuations in membership in the various republics and provinces in LCY organizations has also brought significant changes in their shares in the total LCY membership: the percentage of members from Bosnia and Hercegovina, Slovenia, Serbia proper, Montenegro, Serbia as a whole and Vojvodina has increased in that order, while the percentage of total membership from Kosovo has stayed the same as in 1968 and the share from Macedonia and particularly Croatia has decreased. Data on the proportions of membership of individual republic and provincial LCY organizations in total LCY membership do not, however, have great significance until they are compared to the statistics on the percentage share of the adult populations of individual republics and provinces in the total population of Yugoslavia, and data on the age profile of the population. Such comparisons at first glance reveal great variations, because, for example, LCY membership in Montenegro relative to total population of the republic is twice the ratio in Slovenia. This extreme example is, however, exceptional since among other things the small numbers of Montenegro both in total population and in LCY membership must be considered, so that the indicated comparison loses meaning in absolute terms. The other disproportions are more or less tolerable, and they are indeed somewhat smaller if LCY membership on the federal level is excluded and LCY membership classified according to republics and provinces. Then the relative proportion of LCY membership of Serbia and especially of Serbia proper [within the total population of Serbia] is somewhat smaller, and membership in the other republics and provinces is somewhat greater.

Source: STATISTICKI PREGLED SKJ 1968-1975 (A Statistical Survey of the LCY 1968-1975); STATISTICKI PREGLED O CLANSTVU SK SRBIJE (A Statistical Survey of LCY Membership in Serbia); and STATISTICKI GODISNJAK JUGOSLAVIJE (Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia).

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FOOTNOTES

1. This study is a condensation of an investigation by the author under the general title "Basic Structural Features and Trends in the Membership of the LCY," which is part of the project "The Role and Activities of the Membership, Organizations and Leadership of the LCY in the Development of the Socialist Self-Management Society," sponsored by the Center for Social Research of the Presidium of the Central Committee of the LCY.

On LCY membership prior to 1965, see JUGOSLOVENSKI PREGLED, June 1967, pp 247-250.

2. Thus in 1968 the most influential communist party in the West, the Italian Communist Party, had 2.8 percent of the total Italian population as members, and the CPSU had 5.62 percent of the total population; that same year the LCY had 5.74 percent of the total population, or 8.62 percent of the adult population.
3. Thus, in 1968 the LCY had three times more younger members (up to 27 years) than did the CPSU (including candidates), while the portion of members of 50 years and older in the LCY membership was half that in the CPSU membership. One should also take into account that in 1968 the LCY had markedly fewer members in the youngest category than in 1975 (with an index of 86.2).
4. Analysis of the socioprofessional structure of the membership does not encompass members of the League of Communists in the Yugoslav National Army, or in special organizational units of the LCY, including persons serving military terms.
5. The sum of members by republics and provinces does not give total membership because it excludes membership in the Yugoslav National Army. In addition, prior to 1973 membership in Serbia proper included figures for the federation. For comparison of data membership through the federal LCY is included with membership in either Serbia proper or Serbia as a whole, after 1973 as well.

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JEWISH COMMUNITY IN YUGOSLAVIA, BASED ON 1971-72 DEMOGRAPHIC STUDY

Belgrade STANOVNISTVO in Serbo-Croatian No 3/4, Jul-Dec 74 and No 1/2, Jan-Jun 75 pp 169-183

[Article by Marko Peric]

[Text] In 1971 and 1972 a special demographic study of the members of Jewish Opstinas and members of their households was conducted. (Jewish Opstina is the traditional name for the Jewish organizations in the various towns, and after World War II, in areas where there were few Jews remaining, it even covered certain regions. Thus, today, the Socialist Republics of Macedonia and Slovenia as well as the Socialist Autonomous Province of Kosovo are each covered by one Jewish Opstina. There are a total of 30 [such] opstinas in Yugoslavia.) Until now no such study of the Jewish community in Yugoslavia has been conducted, and consequently the results of this study will give certain new information for which up to this time there have been no available data.¹

In this work, in order to obtain the historical perspective, data on the Jewish population in Yugoslavia obtained through official censuses between the two world wars and after World War II are given first. Next, the characteristic factors in the identification and inclusion of Jews in these censuses are pointed out, particularly in the post-World War II censuses. Next, the special 1971-1972 demographic study of the Jewish community is discussed and the basic results are reviewed.

I. Jews in the Official Censuses 1921-1971

According to the general 1921 census, there were 64,746 Jews in the newly created state of Yugoslavia.² Data concerning the number of Jews in the smaller administrative-territorial units (regions, municipalities and townships) were published as well. According to the regular census of 1931,³ there were 68,405 Jews, totaling close to 0.5 percent of the total population. The results concerning the number of Jews in the various Banovinas [large territorial units roughly corresponding to present-day republics and autonomous provinces] and srezovi [municipalities] (the territorial-administrative units at that time) were published, as well as those for

the Belgrade administrative area (Belgrade with Zemun and Pancevo). In addition to data concerning the total number, data were also given on the number of Ashkenazi, Sephardic and Orthodox Jews.⁴ At that time there were 39,010 Ashkenazi Jews in Yugoslavia, or 57 percent of the total number of Jews, 26,168 Sephardic Jews, or 38.3 percent, and 3,227 Orthodox Jews, or 4.7 percent of the total.

It is interesting to note that in the 1931 census book the Jews were entered in the table column entitled "those of other religions, without religion and unknown." Detailed specific data concerning the number and religious rites of Jews, as well as their share of the total population, were given in the section entitled "special remarks." Of the 12 pages of these remarks, six contain data on the Jews. While the Jews comprised somewhat less than 0.5 percent of the total population of Yugoslavia, they made up 3.1 percent of the Belgrade administrative area.

On the basis of census data gathered between the two world wars, a complete picture is obtained concerning the number and territorial distribution of the Jews, while that of 1931 gave information concerning the religious rites as well. At that time, the identification of the Jews was not a problem. All citizens, with very few exceptions (there were a total of 1,107 such persons in all of Yugoslavia) belonged to one religious community or another, and the question of religious affiliation was given great prominence in census compilations. As far as the identification of Jews was concerned, only one characteristic, religion, was necessary, which was not the case with any other nationality in Yugoslavia. Besides, the Jews were organized into religious and other organizations by rite (Ashkenazi, Sephardic, Orthodox). However, one must not lose sight of the fact that a considerable number of persons considered themselves Jewish by religion but not by nationality (for example: Serb of Moses' faith, Hungarian-Jew, etc.).

There were four such censuses after World War II. An entirely new situation arose in regard to the identification of the Jews.

As we have seen, the two prewar censuses gave religious affiliation paramount importance. The 1921 census did not ask the question of nationality at all, while that of 1931 did include it in the questionnaire, but the data were not processed and are thus not available.

Of the four postwar censuses, the question of religion has been asked and processed only once (in 1953), while that of national affiliation has been asked in all of them. This can be seen from the following summarization (Table 1).

In the four postwar censuses the national affiliation was determined exclusively on the basis of subjective criteria of the persons counted. Each inhabitant's nationality was determined exclusively by the statement he gave concerning his personal preference. No objective facts or documents

were posed as a condition for this. (The same held true for religious affiliation, i.e. relationship to religious affiliation in the 1953 census.)

Table 1. Nationality and Religion in Censuses

(2) Pitanje	(1) Da li je u popisu postavljeno pitanje i da li su podaci obrađeni					
	1921.	1931.	1948.	1953.	1961.	1971.
(3) Narodnost	—	x	+	+	+	+
(4) Vera	+	+	—	+	—	—

(5) Objašnjenje znakova:

— = pitanje nije postavljeno

+ = pitanje je postavljeno i raspolaže se podacima

x = pitanje je postavljeno, ali nije obrađeno, odnosno ne raspolaže se podacima

Key:

1. Was the question asked in the census and were the data processed?
2. Question
3. Nationality
4. Religion
5. Explanation of symbols:
 - = question not asked
 - + = question was asked and the data are available
 - x = question was asked, but not processed, i.e. the data are not available

In the most recent census, that of 1971, each citizen had the right, according to the SFRY Constitution, not to answer the question on nationality. The published data on the national composition from this census thus include a number of persons who did not wish to declare a national or ethnic affiliation.

Under these conditions, particularly when it is a question of individuals and small numbers of people, the subjective psychological elements which are influenced by numerous external changeable factors play a prominent role. Undoubtedly, the strong influencing factor on a large number of surviving Yugoslav Jews not to declare themselves as Jews in the decades immediately following the war was--for example--the tragic fate of the vast majority of European Jews in general during the course of World War II.

In the first postwar census, taken in 1948, 6,853 Jews were registered. At that time there were 11,934 persons who were members of the Jewish Opstinas. It must be kept in mind that after the war the membership in

the Jewish Opstinas was purely non-mandatory, and only those wishing to do so became members. Besides, a portion of the members of the Jewish Opstinas did not declare themselves ethnically as Jews in the census while--on the other hand--there was a certain number of Jews with no connection whatsoever to the Jewish organization who declared themselves as Jewish in the census.

Some of the Jews declared themselves in the census as "Serbian-Jewish," "Croatian-Jewish," "Hungarian-Jewish," etc. When the data were processed these persons were not classified as Jews but rather as Serbs, Croats, Hungarians, etc. The rule followed here was that when a person lists two nationalities, only the first one is considered. However, this rule was not followed in the case of Montenegrins or Gypsies, only Jews. Here is what the organizers of the census have officially written about this:

"In a very significant number of replies this question was answered with two nationalities. According to the review instructions, the first nationality listed should be taken into account as far as these persons are concerned. However, during the review this principle could not be consistently put into practice as far as all the respondents were concerned, for really objective reasons. Thus, for instance, persons who replied by putting down 'Serb-Montenegrin' or 'Serb-Gypsy' were classified as being only Montenegrin or Gypsy by nationality, although in both instances this nationality was listed second."⁵

Of the total number of almost 16 million people, which was the population of Yugoslavia at that time, a few hundred or thousand answer sheets represent, as far as the statistician is concerned, "a totally insignificant number." However, considering the relatively as well as absolutely small number of the Jewish population in Yugoslavia, the number of Jews "lost" in the census results cannot be regarded as "totally insignificant."

In the second postwar census (1953) 2,307 persons declared themselves as Jews, which comprised approximately one-third of the members of Jewish Opstinas. This considerable decrease in the number of Jews vis-a-vis the 1948 census results is connected to emigration to Israel. In the period between the two censuses 7,739 persons emigrated to Israel.⁶

This census also asked the question of religion or relationship in regard to religion; 2,565 persons of "Moses' faith" were registered. In the published results of this census tables were given in which nationality is cross-referenced to religion. We will abstract the data on the persons of "Moses' faith."

Table 2. Persons of "Moses' Faith" According to Nationality in the 1953 Census

(1) Narodnost	(2) Svega	(3) Muški	(4) ženski
(5) Ukupno	2.565	1.047	1.518
Srbi	220	100	120
Hrvati	693	260	433
Slovenci	53	23	30
Makedonci	5	4	1
Crnogorci	1	—	1
Jugoslaveni			
neopredeljeni	193	83	110
Ostali Sloveni	36	16	20
Nesloveni	1.364	561	803

(6) Izvor: Popis stanovništva 1953, knjiga I, Vitalna i etnička obeležja, Beograd 1959, str. 278 i 279. Svi podaci iz 1953. godine su iz iste knjige.

Key:

1. Nationality
2. Total
3. Males
4. Females
5. Total
 - Serbs
 - Croats
 - Slovenes
 - Macedonians
 - Montenegrins
 - Yugoslavs
 - Uncommitted
 - Other Slavs
 - Non Slavs
6. Source: 1953 Census, Vol I, Vital and Ethnic Characteristics, Belgrade 1959, pp 278-279. All other data for the year 1953 are from the same book.

Almost half (1,201 persons) of the total number of persons who have declared themselves to be Jewish by religion have opted for one of the Slav nationalities living in Yugoslavia. This means that they are not included in the 2,307 persons who have declared themselves to be Jewish by nationality. Of the remainder of the 1,364 persons who have been listed together under the common title "Non Slavs," probably the greatest portion--according to our free estimate--have declared to be Jewish by nationality (perhaps 1,000 persons). The majority of the remaining 364 persons have probably declared themselves as Hungarian (most likely Hungarian-Jewish).

In the third postwar census, taken in 1961, 2,110 persons have declared themselves to be Jews by nationality, which is approximately one-third of the number of members of the Jewish Opstinas.

The results of the fourth and most recent postwar census, that of 1971,⁷ have shown that 4,811 persons have declared themselves to be Jews by nationality, which is more than twice the number in the 1953 and 1961 censuses, while there have been no significant changes in the membership size of the Jewish Opstinas. There will be further mention of this sudden increase in the number of Jews in the final portion of this work.

Table 3. A Review of the Number of Jews in the Censuses

	1921.	1931.	1948.	1953.	1961.	1971.
(1) Jevreji po nacionalnosti —	—	—	6.853	2.307	2.110	4.811
(2) Jevreji po veri	64.746	68.405	—	2.565	—	—

Key:

1. Jewish according to nationality
2. Jewish according to religion

In view of the fact that the relative number of Jews who have declared themselves as such in the census (and, according to certain estimates, in general) is very small (under 0.1 percent, except in Croatia, where it is 0.1 percent) the data on the Jews are not further analyzed and cross-referenced in the official census results. However, even if they were to be worked out in more detail, they could not serve even as approximate indicators of the structure of the Jewish communities due to the incompleteness of the undertaking. Besides, there are a number of specific questions which are of interest for the study of the population of the Jewish community, which is what prompted the undertaking of this study.

II. Special Demographic Study of the Jewish Community

a. Organization

The decision to carry out a special demographic and general statistical study of the Jewish community in Yugoslavia was arrived at in November of 1965. With the assistance of the Institute for Contemporary Jewry of the Jewish University in Jerusalem, the Council of the Jewish Opstinas in Belgrade was approached with the first preparations. Materials from the Second Colloquium on the Life of Jewish Communities in Europe, held in Brussels in January 1967,⁸ as well as the Guide for Jewish Demographic Research by U. O. Schmelz⁹ in addition to certain other materials from England, France and Italy, made possible an insight into the rich specific experiences in this research field.

By the fall of 1969 the systematic working out of the research project had begun. The entire project was finished in the summer of 1970, which is when the answer sheets assumed their final form both technically and in

terms of content and were printed. At the same time, the instructions for the information gatherers were duplicated. The Jewish Opstinas were given the task of engaging the information gatherers, while the larger ones were to provide an organizer and a controller as well.

During October and November 1970 the supervisor for the entire task gave instructions in all the larger Jewish Opstinas to the information gatherers and controllers. The information gatherers from the smaller neighboring opstinas were invited to these meetings.

This study was discussed at several meetings of the heads of the Council of the Jewish Opstinas, as well as the preparations and responsibilities of the opstinas in its implementation. The action was publicized in several issues of the JEVREJSKI PREGLED [Jewish Review], the periodical of the Council of Jewish Opstinas of Yugoslavia.

Initially, the entire field-work portion was planned to be carried out like a traditional census with the main intention of not taking more than 1 to 2 weeks. However, due to various organizational and other difficulties and deficiencies, this was accomplished in only a few instances. In some of the larger cities, the data were being collected throughout 1971, and in some instances, through 1972.

In some opstinas, particularly in the large cities, the information gatherers were not able to find all the scattered households of the Jewish Opstina members, partly due to the fact that the address books were not completely up to date, and also because in some instances there was not enough ingenuity and persistence to overcome the difficulties of this rather complex task. These are some of the reasons why, in this instance, we cannot call it a classical census of the members of the Jewish Opstinas and their household members.

In some Jewish Opstinas, which are not small by Yugoslav standards, over 90 percent of the members were interviewed; for example, Novi Sad (97 percent), Subotica (94 percent) and Osijek (100 percent). In the large cities the outcome was less successful. In Zagreb, 86 percent of the members were interviewed, in Sarajevo 76 percent and in Belgrade only 64 percent. Of the total of 5,696 members of the Council of Jewish Opstinas, 4,702 persons, or 85.5 percent of the total, were interviewed.

It seems to us that, in spite of these deficiencies, the data gathered are sufficiently representative of the structure and trends of the Jewish community in Yugoslavia, of the larger Jewish Opstinas, as well as of Jews in individual regions.

b. Some Problems of Identification and Scope

One of the greatest difficulties in preparing any special study is the problem of identification and scope. Only those Jews and household members

wishing to be included are included in the membership of the Jewish Opstinas. There are no other records of Jews in Yugoslavia. Therefore, this special study could be supported only by the information on the members of the Jewish Opstinas. All the members contacted by the information gatherers, with the exception of approximately 10 individuals, answered the appeal of the council and the opstinas.

As far as the nationality of the individual household member was concerned, the answer entered in each household form was, in accordance with the official census rules, that of the individual's preference. When the data were processed, all those who had declared themselves as Jews were classified as such, regardless of whether they stated merely "Jew" or "Serbian Jew," "Croatian Jew," etc. Thus, the following results were obtained:

Table 4. Interviewed Households, the Number of Individuals Therein and the Number of Jews Therein

	(1) Anketirano domaćinstava	(2) Ukupno lica u domaćinstvu	(3) U tome Jevreja	
			(4) broj	%
(5) S F R J	2.557	6.457	4.199	65
(6) Bosna i Hercegovina	416	1.068	751	70
(7) Hrvatska	1.027	2.566	1.733	68
(8) Makedonija	22	70	36	51
(9) Slovenija	40	109	61	56
(10) Srbija — svega	1.052	2.644	1.618	61
(11) bez pokrajina	568	1.514	881	58
(12) Vojvodina	484	1.130	737	65

Key:

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1. Interviewed households | 7. Croatia |
| 2. Total number of persons in the household | 8. Macedonia |
| 3. Number of Jews | 9. Slovenia |
| 4. Numerically | 10. Serbia--total |
| 5. SFRY | 11. Minus the provinces |
| 6. Bosnia and Hercegovina | 12. Vojvodina |

In all of Yugoslavia, 2,557 households of the members of the Council of Jewish Opstinas were interviewed. Of the total of 6,457 persons living in these households, 4,199 persons declared themselves as Jews, while detailed individual questionnaires were filled out on 4,702 persons. The greatest number of Jews in relation to the total number of persons in the interviewed households live in Bosnia and Hercegovina (70 percent), while the smallest number is to be found in Macedonia (51 percent) and Slovenia (56 percent) where, generally speaking, the absolute number of Jews is also small.

c. Interviewed Persons' Ancestry

In addition to subjective declarations regarding national affiliation, which were obtained through the statements of the members of the interviewed households, an effort was made to record more objective criteria regarding the interviewed persons' ancestry. The intent was not to merely establish whether the father and mother of the interviewed individual were Jews, but also to establish the intra-Jewish makeup of the individual according to the parents' affiliation. For each individual of Jewish parentage there were three possible answers provided in the answer sheet: "Ashkenazi," "Sephardic" (see footnote 4) or "Jew--no specific affiliation" (abbreviated as "Jew n."). This third category of Jews was introduced because, during the preparation of the study, it became evident that there are Jews in Yugoslavia, particularly the younger ones--from the postwar generation and mixed marriages--who consider themselves neither Sephardic nor Ashkenazi but who feel, declare and consider themselves to be Jews. A possible fourth answer concerning the father or mother's affiliation was "not Jew." The specific nationality was entered, which makes possible later even more detailed investigations.

In this fashion, an interesting picture concerning the ancestry of the parents of the interviewed members of the Jewish Opstinas in Yugoslavia as a whole and their geographic distribution in the Socialist Republics and Autonomous Province of Vojvodina was obtained. This can be seen from Table 5.

Table 5. Interviewed Persons According to the Ancestry of Father and Mother

			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6) S r b i j a		
			SFRJ	Bosna i Hercegovina	Hrvatska	Makedonija	Slovenija	(7) svega	(8) bez po- krajina	(9) Vojvo- dina
(10) U K U P N O			4.702	985	1.665	62	93	1.897	1.150	747
(12) SVEGA			3.209	631	1.241	20	47	1.270	663	607
(11) Oba roditelja Jevreji	(13) Od toga:	(15) Mati								
	(14) Otac									
	(16) Sefard	Sefard	981	456	176	14	5	330	305	25
	(17) Aškenaz	Sefard	97	35	35	—	—	27	25	2
	Sefard	Aškenaz	84	28	20	—	—	36	32	4
	Aškenaz	Aškenaz	1.740	104	833	5	41	757	255	502
	(18) Jevrej n.	Jevrej n.	267	8	162	1	1	95	32	63
	Jevrej n.	Sefard	2	—	1	—	—	1	1	—
	Jevrej n.	Aškenaz	8	—	3	—	—	5	—	5
	Sefard	Jevrej n.	15	—	3	—	—	12	12	—
	Aškenaz	Jevrej n.	15	—	8	—	—	7	1	6

[Table continued]

			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(20)	Mati	SVEGA	312	51	88	7	12	154	125	29	
	Jevrejka	(19) Nije Jevrej	107	28	9	5	2	63	63	—	
		Sefard	156	22	61	—	8	65	40	25	
		Aškenaz	49	1	18	2	2	26	22	4	
		Jevrej n.									
(21)	Otac	SVEGA	716	165	229	14	18	290	197	93	
	Jevrej	Sefard	274	129	31	8	6	100	98	2	
		Aškenaz	356	32	156	6	10	152	81	71	
		Jevrej n.	86	4	42	—	2	38	18	20	
(22)	Oba roditelja nisu Jevreji		465	138	107	21	16	183	165	18	

(23) STRUKTURA

(10)	UKUPNO		100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
(11)	Oba roditelja Jevreji	SVEGA (12)	68,0	64	74,5	32,2	50,5	66,9	57,6	81,3	
		Sefard	21,0	46,3	10,6	22,6	5,4	17,4	26,5	3,3	
		Aškenaz	2,0	3,6	2,1	—	—	1,4	2,2	0,2	
		Sefard	1,8	2,8	1,2	—	—	1,9	2,8	0,5	
		Aškenaz	37,0	10,5	50	8,0	44,0	39,9	22,2	67,2	
		Jevrej n.	5,7	1	9,7	1,6	1,0	5,0	2,8	8,4	
		Jevrej n.	0,0	—	0,0	—	—	0,0	0,1	—	
		Jevrej n.	0,2	—	0,2	—	—	0,3	—	0,6	
		Sefard	0,3	—	0,2	—	—	0,6	1,0	—	
		Aškenaz	0,3	—	0,5	—	—	0,4	0,1	0,8	
(20)	Mati	SVEGA	6,6	5	5,3	11,3	12,9	8,1	10,9	3,9	
	Jevrejka	Nije Jevrej	2,3	2,8	0,5	8,0	2,1	3,3	5,5	—	
		Sefard	3,3	2,2	3,6	—	8,6	3,4	3,5	3,3	
		Jevrej n.	1,0	0,1	1,0	3,2	2,1	1,4	1,9	0,5	
(21)	Otac	SVEGA	15,2	16,7	13,7	22,6	19,3	15,3	17,1	12,4	
	Jevrej	Sefard	5,8	13,0	1,9	12,9	6,5	5,3	8,5	0,2	
		Aškenaz	7,6	3,3	9,4	9,7	10,7	8,0	7,0	9,5	
		Jevrej n.	1,8	0,4	2,5	—	2,1	2,0	1,6	2,7	
(22)	Oba roditelja nisu Jevreji		9,9	14	6,4	33,9	17,2	9,6	14,3	2,4	

Key:

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. SFRY | 13. Of this |
| 2. Bosnia and Hercegovina | 14. Father |
| 3. Croatia | 15. Mother |
| 4. Macedonia | 16. Sephardic |
| 5. Slovenia | 17. Ashkenazi |
| 6. Serbia | 18. Jew--no specific affiliation |
| 7. As a whole | 19. Not Jewish |
| 8. Minus the provinces | 20. Mother Jewish |
| 9. Vojvodina | 21. Father Jewish |
| 10. Total | 22. Neither parent Jewish |
| 11. Both parents Jewish | 23. Structure |
| 12. Including all | |

The table shows that 68 percent of the persons interviewed had parents who were both Jewish; 6.6 percent had only a Jewish mother, while in 15.2 percent of the cases only the father was Jewish. Almost 9.9 percent of those interviewed come from parents who were not Jews. These are mostly women who had married Jews, many of whom joined the organized life of the Jewish community. Of the 465 persons interviewed whose parents were not Jews, 399 (86 percent) were women and only 66 men.

While 21.8 percent of the persons interviewed come from mixed marriages in which one of the parents was not Jewish, only 4 percent come from marriages in which one parent was Ashkenazi and the other Sephardic.

If we compare the distribution of people according to the father and mother's origin in the various republics and the Autonomous Province of Vojvodina, it will become evident that there is a concentration of those whose parents were Sephardic in Bosnia and Hercegovina (46.3 percent), on the territory of Serbia minus the provinces (26.5 percent) and in Macedonia (22.6 percent), while the number of those whose parents were Ashkenazi is considerably greater in Vojvodina (67.2 percent), Croatia (50 percent) and Slovenia (44 percent).

Many of these characteristics of the distribution of the persons interviewed according to the parentage have their roots in the past, when the Ashkenazi and the Sephardim, with their different languages, customs and traditions tended to concentrate in different regions of present-day Yugoslavia. The table drawn from the 1931 census, which we have reproduced below, is particularly illustrative in this respect.

Table 6. The Geographic Distribution of Jews According to Rite and Their Percentage of the Total Number of Inhabitants According to the 1931 Census

(1) Banovine	(2) Sefardi		(3) Aškenazi		(4) Ortodoksi	
	(5) broj	%	broj	%	broj	%
(6) Jugoslavija	26.168	0,19	39.010	0,28	3.227	0,02
Dravska	4	0,00	813	0,07	3	0,00
Drinska	8.009	0,52	2.034	0,13	—	—
Dunavska	1.809	0,08	13.626	0,57	3.083	0,13
Moravska	524	0,04	50	0,00	12	0,00
Primorska	66	0,01	512	0,06	—	—
Savska	238	0,01	19.310	0,71	27	0,01
Vardarska	7.382	0,47	122	0,01	75	0,00
Vrbaska	708	0,07	450	0,04	2	0,00
Zetska	507	0,05	100	0,01	3	0,00
(7) Uprava grada Beograda (Beograd, Zemun i Pančevo)	6.921	2,40	1.993	0,69	22	0,01

Key:

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Banovinas | 5. Number |
| 2. Sephardic | 6. Yugoslavia |
| 3. Ashkenazi | 7. Belgrade Administrative Area |
| 4. Orthodox | (Belgrade, Zemun and Pancevo) |

As can be seen from Table 6, the majority of Sephardim lived in the Drinska and Vardarska Banovinas (chiefly Bosnia and Macedonia) and in Belgrade (where they numbered 2.4 percent of the total population). The majority of the Ashkenazi lived in the Savska and Dunavska Banovinas (chiefly Croatia and Vojvodina). Almost all the Orthodox lived in the Dunavska Banovina (Vojvodina).

While the Ashkenazi for the most part populated the area which in the last century was part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire (Croatia, Slovenia, Vojvodina), the Sephardim settled in the territory which had, up to the beginning of the last century, been a part of the Ottoman Empire (Bosnia and Hercegovina, Serbia, Macedonia). Furthermore, it must be kept in mind that up until World War II in those towns having Jewish populations of different rites there were separate religious communities, organized according to religious rite, separate temples, separate cultural, charitable, sports and other organizations.

d. Other Basic Results of the Special Study

We are listing below some of the basic results obtained by this special research project.

Number of Persons and Households

A total of 2,557 households were interviewed. The following table gives the distribution of the households according to the number of Jews and other members in them.

Table 7

(1) Broj lica u domaćinstvu	(2) Broj domaćinstava	%	(3) Broj Jevreja	%
(4) Ukupno	2 557	100,0	4 199	100,0
1	643	25,1	604	14,4
2	772	30,2	1 052	25,0
3	586	22,9	1 053	25,0
4	415	16,2	973	23,2
5	101	3,9	278	6,6
6	28	1,1	103	2,5
(5) 7 i više	12	0,5	136*	3,2

(6) * Ovde su uvršteni i stanovnici Jevrejskog doma staraca u Zagrebu (102 lica, od kojih 95 Jevreji: 21 muškarac i 74 žene).

Key:

1. Number of persons in household
2. Number of households
3. Number of Jews
4. Total
5. 7 or more
6. We have also listed here those living in the Jewish Old People's Home in Zagreb (102 persons, 95 of whom are Jews: 21 men and 74 women).

Living in the above households there were 451 persons (or 17.6 percent) 14 years of age or younger as well as 1,158 persons (or 45.3 percent) 65 years of age or older.

Distribution According to Sex and Age

Table 8

(1) Starosne grupe	(2) Ukupno		(3) Muški		(4) Žene	
	(5) Broj	%	broj	%	broj	%
(6) Ukupno	4.702	100	1.966	100	2.736	100
(7) Pol u %	100%		42%		58%	
0—14	288	6,1	150	7,6	138	5,1
15—29	1.003	21,4	519	26,4	484	17,7
30—44	500	10,6	191	9,7	309	11,3
45—64	1.843	39,2	704	35,8	1.139	41,6
(8) 65 i stariji	1.068	22,7	402	20,5	666	24,3

Key:

- | | |
|---------------|----------------------|
| 1. Age groups | 5. Number |
| 2. Total | 6. Total |
| 3. Men | 7. Sex by percentage |
| 4. Women | 8. 65 or older |

Marital Status

If we consider persons 15 years of age and older, 1,029 of those interviewed have never been married, while 2,433 or 55.1 percent are married. There are 768 (17.4 percent) widowed persons, of which 70 are men and 698 women (a ratio of 1:10). Some 184 are divorced (4.2 percent) of which 29 are women and 155 are men.

Mothers According to the Number of Children Born

Table 9

(1) Rođene dece	(2) Žena	%
(3) Ukupno	1 355	100,0
1	665	49,1
2	527	38,9
3	118	8,7
4	25	1,8
5	11	0,8
6	5	0,4
(4) 7 i više	4	0,3

Key:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------|
| 1. Children born | 3. Total |
| 2. Women | 4. 7 or more |

All these women gave birth to a total of 2,286 children, of which 27 or 1.18 percent died before reaching the age of 5.

Place of Birth

Table 10

(1) Mesto rođenja u republici	(2) Broj	%
(3) Ukupno	4.702	100,0
(4) Bosna i Hercegovina	1.283	27,3
(5) Crna Gora	14	0,3
(6) Makedonija	84	1,8
(7) Slovenija	109	2,3
(8) Hrvatska	1.281	27,3
(9) Srbija — ukupno	1.461	31,2
(10) bez pokrajina	671	14,3
(11) Vojvodina	777	16,6
(12) Kosovo	13	0,3
(13) Inostranstvo	459	9,8
(14) Nepoznato	3	0,0

Key:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Place of birth--republic | 8. Croatia |
| 2. Number | 9. Serbia--total |
| 3. Total | 10. Minus the provinces |
| 4. Bosnia and Hercegovina | 11. Vojvodina |
| 5. Montenegro | 12. Kosovo |
| 6. Macedonia | 13. Abroad |
| 7. Slovenia | 14. Not known |

Place of Domicile and Birth

Only 40 percent of those interviewed were born in the place in which they now reside. Of the total number of those born in Bosnia and Hercegovina, 64 percent live in that republic. Eighty-two percent of those born in Croatia live there. Only 17 percent of those born in Macedonia still live there, while 47 percent of those born in Macedonia live in Belgrade. Thirty-one percent of those born in Slovenia live there. Eighty-five percent of those born on the territory of Serbia minus the provinces live in that territory. Some 45.1 percent of the persons born abroad live in the Socialist Republics of Croatia and Serbia (including Vojvodina), 5.7 percent in Bosnia and Hercegovina, 2.8 percent in Slovenia and 1.3 percent in Macedonia. Some 1,876 persons, that is 40 percent, live in the same place they lived on the eve of the war, i.e. in 1940.

Immigration

Of the persons interviewed 436, or 9.3 percent, immigrated into the territory of today's Yugoslavia; 141 persons, or 32.3 percent, immigrated before World War I; 224 persons or 51.4 percent arrived between the two wars, while 71 persons or 16.3 percent arrived after World War II.

Native Tongue in Percentages

Table 11

(1) Ukupno	100
(2) Srpskohrvatski ili hrvatskosrpski	70,8
(3) Mađarski	16,0
(4) Nemački	4,4
(5) Ladino ¹⁰	4,3
(6) Slovenački	1,7
(7) Makedonski	0,6
(8) Jidiš ¹⁰	0,5
(9) Ostali jezici	1,7

Key:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Total | 5. Ladino ¹⁰ |
| 2. Serbo-Croatian or Croato-Serbian | 6. Slovene |
| 3. Hungarian | 7. Macedonian |
| 4. German | 8. Yiddish ¹⁰ |
| | 9. Other languages |

Hungarian, German and Ladino represent, for the most part, the native language of the older generations; Yiddish is the native language only of those persons over 45 years of age, while German is found as the native language only among those 30 and over.

Educational Background

The 4,414 persons 15 or over who were interviewed gave the following educational breakdown:

Table 12

	(1) Broj	%
(2) Ukupno	4,414	100,0
(3) Bez spreme	23	0,5
(4) 4 razreda osnovne škole	311	7,0
(5) Osmogodišnja škola	885	20,0
(6) Škola za KV i VKV radnike	255	5,8
(7) Gimnazija	892	20,2
(8) Škola za srednji stručni kadar	884	20,0
(9) Viša škola	278	6,3
(10) Visoka škola	886	20,1

Key:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. Number | 6. School for skilled and highly skilled workers |
| 2. Total | 7. High school |
| 3. Without education | 8. Intermediate technical school |
| 4. Four years elementary school | 9. College |
| 5. Eight years of schooling | 10. Beyond college |

Employment Status

Table 13

	(1) Broj	%	%
(2) Ukupno	4.702	100,0	
(3) U radnom odnosu — svega	1.587	33,7	100,0
(4) Primaju lični dokodak	1.414	30,0	89,1
(5) Samostalni	104	2,2	6,6
(6) Privremeno nezaposleni	69	1,5	4,3
(7) Van radnog odnosa — svega	3.115	66,3	100,0
(8) Đaci i studenti	817	17,4	26,2
(9) Domaćice	804	17,2	25,8
(10) Penzioneri	1.320	28,1	42,4
(11) Invalidi	4	0,0	0,1
(12) Predškolska deca i ostali	170	3,6	5,5

Key:

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Number | 7. Not employed--total |
| 2. Total | 8. Students |
| 3. Employed--total | 9. Housewives |
| 4. Earn income | 10. Retired |
| 5. Independent | 11. Handicapped |
| 6. Temporary unemployed | 12. Pre-school children and others |

Occupation

The occupational distribution of 1,520 persons who gave the pertinent information yields the following data:

Table 14

	(1) Broj	%
(2) Ukupno	1.520	100,0
(3) Kancelarijski, finansijski i srodni sl.	363	23,9
(4) Industrijski i zanatski radnici	230	15,1
(5) Lekari i dr. zdravstveno osoblje	203	13,4
(6) Profesori, učitelji i dr. nastavno osoblje	183	12,0
(7) Pravnici i ekonomisti	113	7,4
(8) Trgovinsko osoblje	92	6,1
(9) Fizičari, hemičari, mašinci i matematičari	91	6,0
(10) Rukovodioci	62	4,1
(11) Građevinski inženjeri, arhitekti i sl.	59	3,9
(12) Umetnici	43	2,8
(13) Novinari	34	2,2
(14) Biolozi, agronomi, veterinari i srodni	21	1,4
(15) Usluge i zaštita	17	1,1
(16) Saobraćajno osoblje	5	0,3
(17) Poljoprivrednici, ribari, šumski radnici i srodni	4	0,3

[Key on following page]

Key:

1. Number
2. Total
3. Office and financial workers and similar occupations
4. Industrial and trade workers
5. Physicians and other health care personnel
6. Professors, teachers and other instructors
7. Lawyers and economists
8. Commerce personnel
9. Physicists, chemists, mechanical engineers and mathematicians
10. Managers
11. Building engineers, architects, etc.
12. Artists
13. Newspapermen
14. Biologists, agronomists, veterinarians and related fields
15. Services and defense
16. Traffic personnel
17. Agricultural workers, fishermen, forestry workers and related fields

Ownership of Real Estate

Some 904 persons, or 19.2 percent of those interviewed, own real estate.

Social and Health Conditions

Some 156 persons, or 3.3 percent of those interviewed, receive social assistance [social security]. Some 3,138, or 66.7 percent of those interviewed consider themselves to be in good health, while 1,564 persons, or 33.3 percent of those interviewed, suffer from chronic ailments. Some 1,019, or 21.7 percent, have had their health damaged as a result of sufferings undergone during World War II; 126, or 2.7 percent, are disabled veterans, while 250 persons, or 5.3 percent, have been disabled as the result of work accidents.

Location and Fate During World War II

Table 15

	(1) Broj	%
(2) U koncentracionim logorima, zatvorima i sl.	1.815	65,2
(3) U izbeglištvu i prikriveno	1.057	33,8
(4) U narodnooslobodilačkoj borbi	796	25,4
(5) U ratnom zarobljeništvu	205	6,5
(6) U pokretima otpora i savezničkim armijama	41	1,3
(7) Ostalo	253	8,1

[Key on following page]

Key:

1. Number
2. In concentration camps, prisons, etc.
3. Refugees or in hiding
4. In the War of Liberation
5. Prisoners of war
6. In resistance movements and Allied armies
7. Other

The location and fate of 3,130 persons born before 1930 are summarized in this table. It is to be understood that certain persons were in two or more of the above places, which accounts for the fact that the total is greater than the number of persons.

A total of 523 persons, or 16.8 percent of those interviewed, are recognized fighters in the War of Liberation from before 9 September 1943, while 69, or 2.2 percent, are bearers of Spomenica 1941 [a decoration given to the "first-fighters," i.e. those who joined the movement at its very outset in 1941].

Knowledge of Jewish Languages

As far as the knowledge of Jewish languages is concerned--which here comprises Hebrew,¹¹ Ladino and Yiddish--the situation is as follows: of the 4,414 persons interviewed who are 15 or older, 289, or 6.5 percent know Hebrew; 1.3 percent know it well, while 5.2 percent know it imperfectly.

Some 617 persons, or 13.9 percent speak Ladino. The breakdown is as follows: 271 in Bosnia and Hercegovina, 205 in Serbia minus the provinces, 109 in Croatia.

Of the 3,411 persons interviewed who were 30 or over, only 160, or 4.7 percent, speak Yiddish. No one under 30 speaks that language, while in the 30 to 44 age group only eight of those interviewed speak it.

Involvement in Jewish Organizations

Of the 3,411 persons interviewed, who were 45 or over in 1970, 855, or 25 percent, were active in Jewish organizations before World War II. Of the 4,414 persons interviewed who were 15 or over in 1970, 1,069, or 24.2 percent, were active in Jewish life after 1944.

Jewish holidays and customs are observed, in some fashion, by 1,982 or 45 percent of those interviewed, while 1,469 or one-third of those interviewed visit the synagogue either regularly or intermittently.

III. Increase in the Number of Jews in the 1971 Census

Great changes in the data pertaining to the Jews can be observed in the 1971 census data as compared to the 1961 census data, and compared to our special study.

Table 16. Jews in the 1971 and 1961 Censuses and the Special Study

	(1) SFRJ	(2) Bosna i Hercego- vina	(3) Crna Gora	(4) Hrvatska	(5) Makedonija	(6) Slovenija	(7) Srbija			
							(8) svega	(9) bez po- krajina	(10) Vojvo- dina	(11) Kosovo
(12) Popis 1971.	4.811	708	26	2.845	32	72	1.128	603	513	12
(13) Popis 1961.	2.110	381	5	406	47	21	1.250	497	735	18
(14) Posebno istraž.	4.199	751	...	1.733	36	61	1.618	881	737	...

Key:

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. SFRY | 8. As a whole |
| 2. Bosnia and Hercegovina | 9. Minus the provinces |
| 3. Montenegro | 10. Vojvodina |
| 4. Croatia | 11. Kosovo |
| 5. Macedonia | 12. 1971 Census |
| 6. Slovenia | 13. 1961 Census |
| 7. Serbia | 14. Special study |

When considering these data, it must be kept in mind that the special study comprises 85.5 percent of the members of the Jewish Opstinas, while the censuses comprise all the inhabitants of Yugoslavia, which means 100 percent of the members of the Jewish Opstinas.

The 1971 census for Croatia, which shows a seven-fold increase in the number of Jews over the 1961 census does not seem very believable.

Judging from personal knowledge of the situation in the field, I noticed that certain opstinas (Gospic, Otocac, Sinj, Imotski, etc.) were, according to the 1971 census, listed as having Jews living in them, whereas there have never been Jews there, nor are any there now. I think that a mistake has been made during the census taking. Most likely, it is the result of an error in coding or in some other phase of data processing. However, since it is a question of a small number of persons, both relatively and absolutely, this was not discovered before the results were published and the error was allowed to slip through. In any event, the number of Jews in Croatia is somewhat smaller (by approximately 1,000, in our opinion) than what the 1971 census results show.

FOOTNOTES

1. We must give our thanks for the priceless professional assistance in the carrying out of this study of Professor U. O. Schmelz, of the Institute for Contemporary Jewry of the Hebrew University in Jerusalem, and Hristina Pop-Antoska from the Federal Institute of Statistics, as well as Engineer Srecko Stanic from the same institute. Thanks to the assistance of these eminent demographers and statisticians, the author was able to carry out this study on an appropriately professional level.
2. The Kingdom of Yugoslavia, General Government Statistics, Final Results of the 31 January 1921 Census, Sarajevo, 1932. All other data for 1921 are from the same source.
3. Final results of the 31 March 1931 census, Vol 2, Existing Population According to Religious Affiliation, Belgrade 1938, pp VI-XII. All other data quoted for 1931 are from the same source.
4. Ashkenazi is the Hebrew name for Jews in central, northern and eastern Europe. Sephardi (from the Hebrew name for the Pyrenees Peninsula, Sepharad), comprise the ethnic group of Jews descending from the Jewish refugees from Spain and Portugal, who were expelled at the end of the 15th century. They differ from the Ashkenazi by tradition, ritual form, and language, which they preserved among themselves from the time they left Spain. The Orthodox are Jews from Eastern Europe who have very strict rules concerning their religious service and lives. There are hardly any left in Yugoslavia.
5. Final results of 15 March 1948 census, Vol IX, Belgrade, p XIII. All data for 1948 are taken from this source.
6. According to the Council of Jewish Opstinias.
7. All data concerning the 1971 census were taken from "The Census of Population and Housing 1971," Vol VI, Population, Vital, Ethnic and Migrational Characteristics, Belgrade 1974.
8. Bok, Willy and Schmelz, U. O. "Demographie et identite juives dans l'Europe contemporaine," Documents from the Second Colloquium on Jewish Life in Contemporary Europe, National Center for High Jewish Studies, Brussels and the Institute for Contemporary Jewry of the Jewish University in Jerusalem. Published by the Brussels University, 1972.
9. Published in the book by Schmelz, U. O. and Glickson [?] P. et al. "Jewish Demographic Research 1961-1968," Institute for Contemporary Jewry and Institute for Jewish Questions, Jerusalem-London 1970, pp 11-94.

10. Ladino is the Spanish-Jewish language of the Jews exiled from Spain and Portugal at the end of the 15th century. This [form of] Spanish with its archaic medieval words and forms is interspersed with words from the languages of the newly settled areas.

Yiddish is the language spoken by Jews from the Gulf of Finland to the Sea of Azov as well as in the United States. Old German forms the basis of the language, which is intermixed with Hebrew and Slavic elements. There is a great literature in this language, which, for the most part, was created in Germany, Poland, Russia and the United States. We have translated some of these writers, chiefly Sholem Aleichem, who describes the everyday Jew in Polish and Russian villages.

11. Hebrew, or Ivrit, is the updated Old Jewish language of the Bible, which is today the official language in Israel.

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